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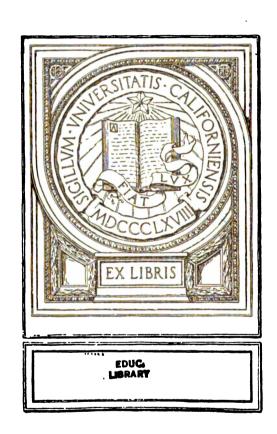
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# ON THE TRAINING OF PERSONS TO TEACH AGRICULTURE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

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TO VIVIDAMA

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1

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# CONTENTS.

	1
LETTER OF TRAN	SMITTAL
	NOTE
Part I.—The n	ature of the problem
	1) Elementary schools
(:	2) High schools
(3	3) Special schools
PART II.—The	means of training the teachers
	(1) Aids to teachers already in service
	(a) Summer schools
	· (b) Regular teachers' institutes
	(c) Lectures
	(d) Correspondence and leaflet work
	(e) Short courses in agricultural colleges
	(f) Peripatetic teachers
	(g)' United States Department of Agriculture
	(2) The training of new teachers
	(a) State normal schools
	(b) Local normal schools
	(c) High schools and training classes
	(d) Separate agricultural schools
	(c) Special foundations
	(f) Education departments and teachers' colleges_
	(g) Colleges of agriculture
PART III.—The	e general outlook; the significance of normal work in the
	olleges of agriculture
•	The content of the normal work
	Department of agricultural education of the Massa-
	chusetts Agricultural College
	College of agriculture of the University of Illinois
	Normal department of the New York State College
	of Agriculture
•	
	Teachers College of the University of Missouri
	College of agriculture of the University of Maine
	Normal course of the North Carolina College of Agri-
	culture and the Mechanic Arts
	North Dakota Agricultural College
	Connecticut Agricultural College
	Washington (State) Agricultural College
	ces
Index	

# TO VIEU Alegoslasõ



#### LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
WASHINGTON, D. C., February 13, 1908.

Sir: I have the honor to transmit herewith a manuscript entitled "On the Training of Persons to Teach Agriculture in the Public Schools," and to recommend its publication as the first number of the bulletin of the Bureau of Education for the year 1908.

By the so-called Nelson amendment to the agricultural appropriation bill for the year 1908 the sum of \$5,000 was added to the appropriation to each of the States for the better endowment and support of the agricultural and mechanical colleges which had been previously endowed and aided under the two Morrill acts, of July 2, 1862, and August 30, 1890; and it was provided that this addition should be increased by the sum of \$5,000 annually till it should reach the annual amount of \$25,000. When this maximum is reached, at the end of a five-year period, each State will receive annually, including the \$25,000 previously granted under the second Morrill Act, a total of \$50,000 for agricultural and mechanical college purposes.

With these liberal endowments and the still larger amounts appropriated by the State governments the "land-grant colleges" have been able to give a great impetus to agricultural education. They have helped to form the rising demand for a wide extension of such education in high schools, normal schools, and schools of elementary grade.

As was pointed out in the report of the Commissioner of Education for the year 1906, there is grave danger that the demand for the teaching of agricultural subjects shall far outrun the supply of properly qualified teachers. Such a mischance might result in a serious setback to a great educational movement—one of the most promising educational movements, in fact, of the present generation. It is accordingly significant that the Nelson amendment contained the following provision: "That said colleges may use a portion of this money for providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts."

The Bureau of Education bears some responsibility in this matter, since the Department of the Interior is charged with the distribu-

tion of the annual appropriations under both the second Morrill Act and the Nelson amendment, and this Bureau is the agency through which that function is discharged. With a view to rendering some assistance in the shaping of plans for such training of teachers as may be undertaken by the colleges with the aid of these new funds, I have asked Prof. Liberty Hyde Bailey, director of the New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, to prepare the bulletin which is presented herewith. Professor Bailey is among the foremost of those who are making the new movements in agricultural education, and his suggestions will have value and interest, not only-for the authorities controlling the agricultural and mechanical colleges, but also for all who are interested in these new educational undertakings.

Very respectfully,

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN,

Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

#### INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

The most significant contemporaneous movement in education is the effort to adapt the work of schools directly to the lives of the pupils. It is the expression of the effort to make the school training applicable. The normal activities of the child are to be directed and trained in such a way that real education will result therefrom. Education will grow out of the child's experience, rather than be imposed on him.

If this is to be the motive of popular education, then agricultural and industrial subjects will be made more and more a means of school work. It is therefore a question of the first importance how to organize these subjects into an educational harmony. The agricultural subjects are specially difficult of organization, because they are so many and so diverse and so unlike in different regions. The character and success of the teaching of these subjects lie immediately with the teacher; there have been no institutions consciously to train teachers for such work; therefore it is not strange that many educators should consider the training of persons to teach agricultural subjects to be the most important educational question now before us.

7



# ON THE TRAINING OF PERSONS TO TEACH AGRICULTURE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

#### PART L-THE NATURE OF THE PROBLEM.

It is first necessary to understand that the training of teachers for the teaching of agriculture in the public schools is not a simple or a single question. The training of teachers for the group of subjects embraced under the term "agriculture" can not be isolated from other training. It is not alone a question of giving the teachers the necessary technical knowledge and skill in agricultural subjects, but also of providing training and experience in methods of teaching, and in developing a point of view and a right estimate of education in general. There is great danger in the technical teaching of agriculture, even though it be well taught, if the teacher is not also well grounded in the social and pedagogical principles and problems involved in all education; and any such irrelevant or unrelated teaching will in the end react disastrously on the very movement that it is intended to promote.

The subject before us is not single in respect to the kinds or grades of schools that are involved in the discussion, the constitution or body of the subject-matter itself, or the nature of the sentiment that lies behind the movement for agriculture in the schools.

In the training of teachers it is necessary at once to know the kind of teaching that the prospective teachers are expected to undertake. With the widespread and unorganized interest in agricultural education it is impossible to make any definite classification, but we may roughly throw the schools in which the teaching of the subject is in question into three groups—the elementary schools, the high schools, and various kinds of special schools.

#### (1).—ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

We first consider elementary teaching of all kinds, meaning, in general, such range of work as is comprised in the first eight grades of a graded school system, or work in ungraded schools that is not more advanced than this. In this group the difficulties are the greatest. The group includes most of the so-called rural schools, the greater part of which are not graded to any extent, in some regions not at all.

These rural schools are most closely in contact with real agricultural needs, and it is in them that many persons seem to expect the quickest and best results from the teaching of agriculture; yet they are beset with very special difficulties, and we shall need to discuss them at some length. We may take this opportunity, also, to discuss some of the principles involved in rural school education.

The first thing that needs to be done with the rural elementary schools—the so-called district schools—is to redirect them and vitalize them, rather than merely to introduce agriculture as such. It is not unlikely, however, that this very agitation for the teaching of agriculture is to be the means of starting the reorganization. The demand for the introduction of agriculture is in reality the concrete expression of a desire to make the schools mean something real and tangible to the pupil, to relate them to his life and environment. The effort to accomplish this has recurred strongly at different epochs for at least one hundred years. Recorded discussions of fifty and seventy-five years ago read much like those of to-day. It is probable, however, that we have now arrived at a time when the agitation will produce concrete organizational results. Education by means of agriculture is but a phase of industrial education.

The special difficulties or handicaps of the rural elementary schools are such as these: Teaching in them is not recognized as a profession, but is undertaken as a preparation for other teaching or as a means of temporary employment, and the qualifications are low; teachers' pay is small; tenure of teaching is short, so that there is lack of continuity of effort; one teacher must handle all subjects in most cases; the school year is usually short; attendance is small and irregular; equipment, even in land, is practically nothing; the constituency is conservative and often even uninterested; supervision is slight, and usually not of a constructive or progressive nature. The whole scale of maintenance and organization is low.

In spite of all these disadvantages, however, the rural elementary school has useful characteristics that must not be overlooked, and that should not be lost. Some persons look for the practical abolition of this type of school, usually planning for it an evolution into a system of consolidated centers after the manner of city-school consolidation. It is a question, however, whether we are not likely to place relatively too much emphasis on the establishing of new institutions, whereas the greatest effectiveness and even the quickest results may probably be attained by utilizing agencies already in existence. It is easy, for example, to ridicule the country school, and then to plead for new isolated schools in which to teach agriculture; but in so doing we may forget that isolated special schools can not serve all the people, and that they also tend to isolate the subject. The present rural schools, with all their shortcomings, are good schools because

(1) they are already in existence; (2) they are the schools of all the people; (3) they are small, and thereby likely to be native and simple; (4) they are many, and therefore close to the actual conditions of the people. We should utilize them to the fullest by improving and redirecting them; and in the end these schools, when redirected, will present the fundamental solution of the problem of rural education. In the discussion of this question, we must not make the mistake of thinking of the welfare of the school alone. The open country needs more local centers of life and influence rather than fewer. It is a debatable question whether the best social life is to be secured by any general consolidation of schools that will make large and far-apart units.

The arguments in favor of consolidation are many and important. By consolidation, stronger teaching units are secured; more money is available for the employing of teachers and the providing of equipment; special subjects can be given adequate attention. The objections are many, but most of those commonly urged are trivial and temporary. The greatest difficulty in bringing about the consolidation of schools is a deep-seated prejudice against giving up the old schools. This prejudice is usually not expressed in words. Often it is really unconscious to the person himself. Yet right here may lie a fundamental and valid reason against the uniform consolidation of rural schools—a feeling that when the school leaves the locality something vital has gone out of the neighborhood. Local pride has been offended. Initiative has been removed one step further away. The locality has lost something. It is a question, even, whether the annual school meeting is to be lightly surrendered, whether it is not worth keeping as an arena for the clearing of local differences, and as a possible nucleus of a useful institution. By every legitimate means we should develop and fix local attachments. We have almost come to be a nation of wanderers and shifters. We are in danger of losing some of our affection for particular pieces of land. Farming is a local business. It develops into great effectiveness only when local feeling is strong. The State also needs the conservatism and steadiness born of this local interest.

Much of the impulse for the consolidation of schools, as already intimated, is a reflection of the centralized city graded school; but it is by no means certain that such institutions are to be the most important or dominating schools of the future. The small rural school, with its weaknesses, has the tremendous advantage of directness and simplicity. It is doubtful whether it would be improved by a rigid system of grading. It is a question, in fact, whether the graded schools do not still carry the onus of proving themselves. Unquestionably consolidation of rural schools is often advantageous, and is to be advised whenever it seems to be necessary for pedagogical

reasons. In some regions it may be a necessity. It is often urged for financial reasons; but this in the long run is not reason enough. We maintain our canals and Government work at public expense. The State must cooperate in the maintenance of its detached schools, by direct appropriations, if necessary, to their localities, always on the condition, however, that all effective control does not pass out of the community. Consolidation of schools is much more than a school question. It touches the very quick of local pride and progress.

There is every reason to expect that consolidation of rural schools will proceed, and with benefit. The point is that it should come naturally and that it should not necessarily be expected to operate advantageously everywhere. It should come as a result of conditions, and should not be forced independently of conditions. It will undoubtedly be found that some districts will be better off without consolidated schools. There is no reason in the nature of education why both separate and consolidated schools may not each render service that the other can not render. It will be unfertunate if the question of consolidation of schools falls into the hands of advocates or partisans. The social welfare of the community, as well as the school work, must be considered in every case.

The rural elementary school will be redirected by making it a natural expression of the community of which it is or ought to be a part. Education should develop out of daily experience. It is not necessary to have an entirely new curriculum in order to redirect the rural school. If geography is taught, let it be taught in terms of the environment. Geography deals with the surface of the earth. It may well concern itself at first with the school grounds, the highways, the fields and what grows in them, the forests, hills, and streams, the hamlet, the people and their affairs. As the pupil grows, he is introduced to the world activities. Similar remarks may be made for arithmetic, reading, and all the other customary work of the school. This is much more than what is now meant by "correlation." The problem of the rural school is not so much one of subjects as of methods of teaching. The best part of any school is its spirit; a school can be conceived in which no agriculture is taught separately, which may still present the subject vitally from day to day by means of the customary studies and exercises. The agricultural colleges, for example, have all along made the mistake of trying to make farmers of their students by compelling them to take certain "practical" courses, forgetting that the spirit and method of the institution are what make the work vital and what send the youth back to the land. The whole enterprise of elementary schooling needs to be developed natively and from a new point of view; for in an agricultural country agriculture should be as much a part of the school as oxygen is a part of the air. We should not isolate

agriculture from the environment of life in order to teach it; we should teach the entire environment.

If the foregoing points are well taken, we then see that the problem of training teachers to teach agriculture in elementary schools is much more than providing them with an equipment of agricultural subject-matter. Here and there the special teacher of agriculture will be needed in elementary work, as in certain consolidated rural schools, and in well-graded city or village schools. Now and then teachers will be needed to supervise the work in agriculture in several related schools; but experience will probably demonstrate that in most cases this will be only a temporary means of handling the subject, in order to organize it and to start it.

It is not alone a new kind of teacher that the rural elementary school needs, and no rural school constituency should be allowed to feel that emphasis should be put on teachers alone. In fact, the kind of teacher is usually an expression and result of the type of effort that exists in the district. The school is worth no more than the district pays for it. The same is true of a horse or a plow or a farm. The rural school premises are often unattractive or even repulsive. No work with spirit in it is likely to be accomplished under such conditions. Moreover, there is no equipment in most of these schools; and teaching can not, any more than farming, be well accomplished without facilities and appliances.

The school building is first to be considered. From Maine to Minnesota one will see in the open country practically one kind of schoolhouse, and this the kind in which our fathers went to school, is nothing about it to suggest the activities of the community or to attract children. Standing in an agricultural country, it is scant of land and bare of trees. If a room or wing were added to every rural schoolhouse to which children could take their collections or in which they could do work with their hands, it would start a revolution in the ideals of country-school teaching, even with our present schoolteachers. Such a room would challenge every person in the community. They would want to know what relation hand training and nature study and similar activities bear to teaching. Such a room would ask a hundred questions every day. The teacher could not refuse to try to answer them. A room of this kind, containing perhaps a plow and a few agricultural implements, would itself constitute one of the means of training teachers.

Eventually, the entire school will partake of the informal character that is suggested by the single workroom. The pupil will be allowed to express himself; and it will be the part of the teacher to direct and shape this expression to the best educational ends. Unless the elementary-school teacher has some such outlook as this, his teaching of agriculture is likely to impose another task on the child.

We may next consider the equipment of land. A good part of all our laboratories should be out of doors. In the argument for separated rural schools, one is struck with the plea that good laboratories may be secured. A good part of this argument comes from college men. It does not at all follow that our four-wall laboratory methods are as useful for the elementary schools as for colleges and high schools. In fact, it is a question whether much of our college laboratory work is really worth the while as compared with good natural field work under the conditions that are everywhere at hand. The school land may be used for plantations of trees and shrubs, for school gardens, for experimental plats, and utilized as an arena of the natural wild life of the neighborhood. Equipment of land should go far toward developing a really effective nature teaching, redirecting some of our present laboratory methods. Laboratory teaching may be pedagogically just as incorrect as book teaching. If the school is fairly well equipped outside and inside, a good part of the difficulty of securing teachers will subside; for the good places naturally attract the good teachers.

It is well to consider briefly what may be taught in the elementary school, whether a town school or a country ungraded school. In some cases separate classes in agriculture may be organized, but in most cases the work for the present must be incidental to other teaching. In any event, the content of the agricultural work must be carefully considered, for this will have direct relation to the training of the teacher. The main effort of primary and elementary teaching, so far as the agricultural phase is concerned, should be to put the pupil in touch with himself and his environment. Before the sixth grade, or its equivalent, there should probably be no agriculture as such. Generalized nature study should here control the work. This will underlie and prepare for all future work. It will be a mistake to try to force formal technical agricultural work in any grade below the high school.

Every teacher should understand that the term "nature study" is a misnomer. It does not stand for a "study." It is not a subject. It is not a "method," as this term is understood by teachers. It is an attitude, a purpose, a point of view, a mode of education. It is spirit. It is a fundamental educational intention, inasmuch as nature is the condition of our existence and as it is our duty to live in effective harmony with our conditions. Its underlying principle is one—to teach the things that are near at hand and that are naturally a part of the child's environment and activities, and to teach these things for the sake of the child, rather than to promulgate a subject. It will be seen, therefore, that no good subsequent teaching of agriculture is possible without the nature-study training.

The nature-study process and point of view should be a part of the work of all schools, because schools train persons to live. Particularly should it be a part of rural schools, because the nature environment is the controlling condition for all persons who live on the land. There is no effective living in the open country unless the mind is sensitive to the objects and phenomena of the open country; and no thoroughly good farming is possible without this same knowledge and outlook. Good farmers are good naturalists. It would be incorrect to begin first with the specific agricultural phases of the environment, for the agricultural phase (as any other special phase) needs a foundation and a base; it is only one part of a point of view. Moreover, to begin with a discussion of the so-called "useful" or "practical" objects, as many advise, would be to teach falsely, for, as these objects are only part of the environment, to single them out and neglect the other subjects would result in a partial and untrue outlook to nature; in fact, it is just this partial and prejudiced outlook that we need to correct.

We must have it in mind that the common elementary schools do not teach trades and professions. We do not approach the subject primarily from an occupational point of view, but from the educational and spiritual; that is, the man should know his work and his environment. The mere giving of information about agricultural objects and practices can have very little good result with children. The spirit is worth more than the letter. Some of the hard and dry tracts on farming would only add one more task to the teacher and the pupil if they were introduced into the school, making the new subject in time as distasteful as physiology and grammar often are. In this new agricultural work we need to be exceedingly careful that we do not go too far, and that we do not lose our sense of relationships and values. Introducing the word agriculture into the scheme of studies means very little; what is taught, and particularly how it is taught, are of the greatest moment. It is to be hoped that no country-life teaching will be so narrow as to put only technical farm subjects before the pupil.

We need also to be careful not to introduce subjects merely because practical grown-up farmers think that the subjects are useful and therefore should be taught. Farming is one thing and teaching is another. What appeals to the man may not appeal to the child. What is most useful to the man may or may not be most useful in training the mind of a pupil in school. The teacher, as well as the farmer, must always be consulted in respect both to the content and the method of agricultural teaching. We must always be alert to see that the work has living interest to the pupil rather than to grown ups, and to be on guard that it does not become lifeless.

Probably the greatest mistake that any teacher makes is in supposing that what is interesting to him is therefore interesting to his pupils.

In a rural community all the surroundings and customary activities should find expression in the school, as a means of putting the pupil into touch and sympathy with his environment: (1) The natural objects in the region and the character of the country; (2) the means by which people in the community live; (3) the household, or domestic affairs; (4) civic affairs, or the way in which human activities are organized and governed. All this is nature study in its best and broadest sense. These subjects may be taught in separate periods or classes; but the fundamental means is a complete redirection of the school activities so that vital and experience work will be a very part of the school life and dominate it. This redirecting of school-teaching, in both country and city, is taking place at the present time, although silently and unobtrusively.

As the child matures, nature-study work may become more concrete. In grades 6 to 8, it may be nature-study agriculture, perhaps following the suggested outline of the Report of the Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities to the National Council of Education, July, 1905 (pp. 44-45):

After the explicit nature study ceases with the fifth grade, the pupil in the rural school may then be taken through the elements of agriculture in the sixth, seventh, and eighth grades. The work in these three grades should really be nature study, but agricultural subjects are the means. Some will prefer to call it nature study rather than agriculture. Its purpose is not so much to teach definite science as to bring the pupil into relation with the objects and affairs that are concerned with the agriculture of his region. When the pupil has completed his nature study in the fifth grade, he should have a good knowledge of the physiography of his region, and of the common animals and plants. He will then be able to carry his inquiries into the more specific field of the agricultural practice and operations. When he has completed his eighth year, he should have a well-developed sympathy with agricultural affairs and he should have a broad, general view of them. Entering the high school, he will then be able to take up some of the subjects in their distinctly scientific phases.

The general plan recommended by the committee is as follows: Sixth year, first half, the affairs of agriculture; second half, the soil; seventh year, farming schemes and crops; eighth year, animals.

If the agricultural work in the grammar grades is to be of the nature-study kind and not of the science kind, it can then cover a somewhat wide range. In these grades, the pupil should not be put into "agronomy," "economics," and other technical subjects, but he should be brought into relation with his agricultural environment.

A statement is now given of what is actually accomplished in a one-teacher district school in New York, where special classes can not be organized. The teacher has been successful in interesting his pupils in various experiments and tests that have relation to farming. He gives all the pupils nature-study work, including the younger ones. Suggestions are had from books, from the State syl-

labus, and perhaps quite as frequently from something that happens for the time to be interesting the school or the community. He is introducing practical local problems into the arithmetic work. He suggests that if ten or twenty-five schools could work together in harmony in arithmetic, geography, and other subjects, thereby making it worth while for examination questions to be asked on these new lines of work, the results would be very marked. Some of the problems that have been more or less used are as follows (as expressed by the teacher himself, Mr. H. H. Lyon):

#### Air:

Test for moisture.

Test for carbonic acid gas. (Limewater, etc.)

Tests for ammonia. (In schoolroom and in cow stables.)

#### Seeds:

Germination. (Find per cent, etc.)

Manner of growth. (Monocotyledons, dicotyledons.)

#### Plants:

Water taken from soil. (Use scales.)

Transpiration. (Collect H2O.)

Examination of nodules on leguminous plants.

Effect of nodules on luxuriance of growth.

#### Soils:

Search for water-table-different places and times.

Test with litmus paper.

Effect of lime or ashes on clay soil.

Effect of lime on clear and on muddy water.

Correct acidity with lime or ashes. (Result observed in growth of clover.) Capillarity under different conditions.

#### Milk:

Babcock test.

Drill in making measurements, reading bottles, computations.

Test acid with acidometer.

Acid test.

Correct measurements, computations of acid.

Milk at different ages.

Under different conditions of cleanliness and temperature.

Bottle and cork tight; keep warm; observe odor; use different samples to compare.

#### Water:

Test for organic matter.

Bottle with a little sugar; keep warm; observe color, etc.

Use potassium permanganate.

#### Osmosis:

Using egg.

Using bladder.

#### Fungicides:

Formaldehyde for oats smut.

Hot water for oats smut.

Bordeaux for potato blight. (Use ferrocyanide test.)

Computations in each case.

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Chemical action:

Caustic soda solution plus muriatic acid.

Evaporate; find the salt.

(Can teach chemical formula of this even at 10 or 12 years.)

Commercial fertilizers:

Handling and mixing—Nitrate of soda, muriate of potash, and dissolved rock. (Computations.)

Cows:

Dairy type. (Examine form, milk veins, hide, etc.) Beef type.

Weather map:

Receive daily maps and determine location of storm center.

Physical experiments of various kinds taken from books on physics. Make suction pump with lamp chimney, etc.

Garden:

A grass plot has been substituted for the school garden, where farm grasses, fertilizers, and seeding may be studied.

It will be seen from a careful consideration of the foregoing discussions that much very good agricultural work can be introduced into the ordinary elementary school that is teaching the usual State syllabus. It can be taught as a part of geography and arithmetic and manual training and reading, as well as in the regular naturestudy intervals; and it is not difficult to send a pupil home with a desire to attack some of the problems at the house, on the farm, and in the garden. The Report of the Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities denies the charge that the poor teaching in the common branches is attributable to lack of time, for the poor results are "not due to lack of time on the part of pupils so much as to poor teaching and lack of proper organization;" and also asserts that the poor results attributed to the overcrowding of the course of study are "not due to the number of subjects, but to the attempt to teach too many things in these subjects which are not worth teaching."

#### (2).-HIGH SCHOOLS.

The question of the teaching of agriculture in the high school is much simpler than the problem in the elementary school. The pupil now arrives at an age when he may begin in some slight degree to choose and to specialize. The school is organized and supervised. Teachers are provided for special subjects. Apparatus is more likely to be supplied.

On the other hand, the high school is more rigid and crystallized. It is usually in town and has no immediate contact with land. It is further removed from direct agricultural influence.

The content of agricultural work in the high school is not yet determined with any definiteness, although very explicit courses of study have been recommended and even adopted. It will require

some years to work the enterprise out satisfactorily. Yet the teacher who is preparing for high-school work in agriculture has a fairly definite and limited field, and can prepare himself concretely. The field is essentially a natural-science field. The high-school teacher of agriculture should be as well grounded in the science and practice of his subject as the teacher of physics or chemistry or botany is in his field. He should, in fact, have a deeper and broader training, since he must use physics, chemistry, botany, and the like, in his special agricultural work. For many years to come the natural-science teacher will probably be obliged to handle the agricultural work in many high schools that introduce the subject.

The teaching of physics, chemistry, and the other natural sciences would probably better be separate from the teaching of agriculture, as schools are now organized, and constitute a science foundation for the agriculture. The alternative is stated as follows by the Committee on Industrial Education in Schools for Rural Communities (p. 45):

If the high school has no adequate course in biology, then the student can be given a good drill in botany and zoology with particular reference to its agricultural relation, and this might be called "agriculture;" but it would be better if the student could have his fundamental training in biology in the first year of his high school and let him take his agricultural science thereafter. The agricultural work in the high school should have a distinctly scientific value. It should be such as would count toward science entrance requirements in case the student should desire to enter an agricultural college.

The point is that the natural sciences are essential; whether they shall be taught as a part of the agriculture or developed in the school preceding the agriculture, is at present a local or special question. We may hope that eventually the teaching of the natural sciences may be so vital and applicable that these sciences may constitute a part of a real course in agriculture.

One of the most hopeful recent movements for secondary agriculture teaching is the introduction of unit courses in biology, whereby an effort is to be made to give the high school pupil a real conception of the processes of life, rather than a fragmentary view of parts of the subject here and there. Everything will depend on whether this teaching can escape from the text-book drudgery and the old fourwall laboratory method. Agricultural subjects are alive and they are out of doors; it is for this reason that many persons are looking to the introduction of these subjects to be a quickening agency in the schools.

Having had biology and some of the elements of physics and chemistry, the pupil then comes to his agriculture; and the teacher wants to know what this agriculture is to be. No one is prepared yet to say just what it shall be. Some of the schemes that have been prepared are so extended and so minutely divided that no teacher can hope to

cover them except by the text-book and recitation method. They seem to be conceived on the type of the present formal text and laboratory work in natural science. It has been the habit to say that the nature-study point of view is advantageous chiefly in the elementary schools, but it is equally needed in the high schools and even in the colleges.

Whether taught formally or informally, the work that the teacher must be prepared on embraces the actual problems of agriculture: The structure and composition of soils and their reactions to natural agencies, the operations of tillage, the reasons and practices underlying the growth and the improvement of plants, the raising and handling of crops, the rearing and improvement of animals, the care and feeding of animals, the marketing of crop and animal products, the diseases, pests, and handicaps of crop growing and stock growing, the use of farm machinery, the making and keeping of the home, the economic and social phases of the farmer's business and life.

Within this range is more subject-matter than any school can cover; but the teacher must know the field in its educational applications, and be able to segregate from it such parts as will make a useful course for any given place or given length of time. Two modes are open to the teacher in organizing such work: (1) To work on problems, choosing those that are applicable in the community, as the growing of corn or cotton, the making of bytter, the raising of hay, the growing of fruit; or (2) to endeavor to develop in the pupil a comprehensive view of the practice of agriculture in general, in much the same way as one endeavors to develop the body of a science. In either case the teacher will require the same fundamental training in the real facts and in educational processes.

The teacher in the high school, as in the elementary school, must nowadays be equipped in school gardening. A laboratory of living things is a necessary part of the best work in nature-study agriculture. It is customary to call this laboratory a school garden. We need to distinguish three types of school garden: (1) The ornamented or planted grounds; this should be a part of every school enterprise, for the premises should be attractive to pupils and they should stand as an example in the community. (2) The formal plat garden, in which a variety of plants is grown and the pupils are taught the usual handicraft; this is the prevailing kind of school gardening. (3) The problem garden, in which certain specific questions are to be studied, in much the spirit that problems are studied in the indoor laboratories; these are little known at present, but their number will increase as school work develops in efficiency; in rural districts, for example, such direct problems as the rust of beans, the blight of potatoes, the testing of varieties of oats, the study of species of grasses, the observation of effect of fertilizers, may well be undertaken when conditions are favorable, and it will matter very little whether the area has the ordinary "garden" appearance. In time ample grounds will be as much a part of a school as the buildings or seats now are. Some of the school-gardening work may be done at the homes of the pupils, and in many cases this is the only kind that is now possible; but the farther removed the laboratory, the less direct the teaching.

#### (8).—SPECIAL SCHOOLS.

There are two current theories as to the best means of developing popular agriculture education: (1) By adding it in existing public schools or evolving it out of their present work; (2) by establishing special schools in which industrial, domestic, and agricultural subjects shall predominate. The latter means is now gaining rapid currency. It assumes several forms, namely, a county school system, as in Wisconsin; a Congressional district system, as typically represented in Alabama and Georgia; an adjunct to existing colleges or universities, as is now beginning in New York; a development of such schools in special localities here and there. The county or centralized high school in new regions that are dominated by agricultural interests becomes strongly industrial and agricultural, and the same will probably be true of new consolidated schools. sota an agricultural high school has been established in connection with the State University. All these schools are supported by public funds. Aside from these classes, there are various kinds of agricultural schools on private and denominational foundations.

These various kinds of schools do not belong to one educational class, but they are thrown together here because they are not a part of the regular public school system. So far as the preparing teacher is concerned, however, they are homogeneous in the sense of requiring a special training for special work, rather than a generalized training. In the higher and more specialized examples the work is carefully differentiated, so that some one phase of agriculture is given exclusively to one teacher.

There is every prospect that these special agricultural schools will increase in number in the next ten years, and they open the most attractive present field for those who would teach agriculture of a secondary public school grade. In fact, it is chiefly the demand created by these special isolated schools that has demonstrated the great lack of teachers for good agricultural work.

It may be well to raise the question with the prospective teacher, however, whether these disconnected schools are always to hold undisputed leadership, for thereby we shall be able to emphasize a very important pedagogical principle—the principle that agriculture edu-

cation should not of right be separated from all other educational Education by means of agriculture is but a phase of education in general. The great effect of these special schools will be their influence in breaking down old prejudices, in setting new and independent standards of education, in arousing enthusiasm, in developing wavs and methods of teaching the common affairs of life. They will react powerfully on the general public school system if their work is not too much insulated by mere technical teaching, perhaps contributing the most productive single influence in the much needed reform and reorganization of all the schools that represent rural communities. There is danger that in the isolation of these institutions we may also isolate the educational programme, and it is the duty of the teacher to see that this does not occur. The final solution is not the organization of special detached schools, but the redirecting of the existing public schools in such a way that they shall teach the members of their communities how to live.

# PART II.—THE MEANS OF TRAINING THE TEACHERS.

Having now examined the nature of the demand for teachers of agriculture and the grades of teaching that are required, we may attack the question of determining where these teachers shall be trained. Where and how a teacher shall be prepared will depend, of course, on the phase or range of agriculture teaching in which he is to engage.

The degree of a teacher's preparation will be conditioned by the pay he is to receive. The general elementary schools, and most of the high schools, do not pay sufficient salaries to warrant a teacher in spending much time and money in perfecting his equipment in both, agriculture and education. Good agricultural college training is practically out of the question for these fields at present, because graduates from such colleges of good abilities command better salaries elsewhere.

The schools will not command good teachers in these new subjects until they are able to supply fairly good equipment in the way of land, material, and apparatus. Very few schools are yet ready for good teachers of agriculture, wholly aside from the question of salary. No really good agricultural work can be accomplished by the customary schoolroom method.

The demand for teachers will arise here and there in the public school system largely in the desire to combine the teaching of agriculture and science. There is every indication that this demand will spread with considerable rapidity. The elementary grades will not yet demand special teachers for these subjects. The special or separate agricultural schools will demand special teachers, with thorough preparation. The demand for nature-study teachers is increasing. These teachers should be able to handle the agricultural work in the grades.

As to the kind of preparation that the teacher should have for good work in agriculture, the first requisite is a new point of view in education. The person need not be afraid to set sail on the ship of current educational theory, but he should be ready, on occasion, to throw overboard all his luggage. He is to land on the home patch, where he will meet new problems that he may want to attack naturally in his own way, and his progress should not be impeded. He

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will not need all the things that he has picked up on his travels. He is to study the objects and materials just about him and as they actually exist, and he is to study them himself, and then impart his interest and his enthusiasm to his pupils. He will need tools of various kinds, as implements, books, notebooks, and apparatus, but they are only tools.

Again, he must teach first-hand fact, not mere theory or mere textbook. The recitation is only incidental; perhaps he will not utilize it in a good part of the work. All agricultural subjects must be taught by the nature-study mode, which is accurately to see the real object or the real phenomenon; to reason correctly from what is seen; to establish a bond of sympathy with the object or phenomenon that is studied. One can not see accurately unless one has the object itself. If the pupil studies corn, he should have corn in his hands, and he should make his own observations and draw his own conclusions; if he studies cows, he should make his own observations on cows and not merely repeat what some one has said about them. So far as possible, all nature-study work should be conducted in the open, where the objects are. If specimens are needed, let the pupils collect them. See that observations are made on the crops in the field as well as on the specimens. Nature study is primarily an outdoor process; the schoolroom should be merely an adjunct to the out of doors, rather than the out of doors an adjunct to the schoolroom, as it is at present. It can not be too often repeated that the teacher and the pupil must get out of doors.

Again, the mere details of "method" are of very secondary importance. When the teacher knows a thing of his own experience and is consumed with enthusiasm for it, he will teach in spite of himself. The teacher must be taught to teach the significant things. Many a pupil is wearied of a subject by the endless attention to mere details, and to exceptions, and to overcareful explanations of this and that. Teach the detail only when the detail is relevant. Do not teach mere processes so far in advance of the need of them. It is the finest thing in teaching to have a nice sense of proportion.

Still again, the intending teacher of agriculture should not neglect the home side of farm life. What we call "home economics" is not necessarily a woman's subject alone. It is central to all effective agriculture. The country girl has just as much need of being put into touch with realities as the country boy has, and no teacher of agriculture, whether man or woman, should neglect or overlook the home any more than he should neglect or overlook the barns.

We may now consider the institutions that may train teachers. In the effort to elucidate this perplexing subject, correspondence has been asked of all State superintendents of public instruction in the United States and of all agricultural colleges, and appeal has been made to many persons who have given this matter much thought. The correspondence culminating in this publication has covered several years, although not all undertaken for the particular purpose of this report. The kindest and freest responses have been given, for which the author now makes due acknowledgment. This correspondence discloses the most diverse opinions in respect to the means to be evolved for the training of persons to teach agriculture. All the respondents indicate a desire to see some means developed whereby teachers can be fitted for this work, evidencing their feeling that a question of great public moment is before us.

The subject may be clarified at once by dividing the efforts to train teachers for agriculture into two groups: (1) Those agencies that aim to aid teachers already in the schools to "get up" agricultural work; (2) those agencies that aim consciously to prepare new teachers for this field.

#### (1).—AIDS TO TEACHERS.

With the exception of the newly organized special agricultural schools, the present work in the teaching of agriculture will fall mostly to teachers who are now engaged in the schools. They have had no regular school training in the subject, as a rule, and they must now prepare themselves as best they can. They are often forced to pass an examination in what is called agriculture, even though there may be no means whereby they can compass the subject. For the present teachers various aids and short cuts are provided, and some of these agencies are also invoked to spread the propaganda of the new education among the people.

These agencies may be ranged under seven heads: (a) Summer schools and institutes; (b) introduction of agricultural work into brief teachers' institutes and convocations; (c) lectures before teachers, farmers, and various organizations, emanating from an educational center; (d) correspondence, reading club, and leaflet work: (e) short courses in agricultural colleges and other institutions; (f) supervising or advisory teachers who inspect the nature study or agriculture in a group of schools; (g) work of the United States Department of Agriculture.

These diverse agencies have exerted a powerful influence on public sentiment touching education that shall prepare men and women to live. In fact, the present momentum of the movement is very largely due to the extensional and propagandic work that these agencies represent. These enterprises can not be expected, however, to give persons the real initial foundation and point of view that will be needed in the coming teaching of agriculture; this real preparation in any teacher must come gradually as the result of work extending over a sufficient period to develop the time element in education. One or

more of these various enterprises is often sufficient, however, to put a good and experienced teacher into real touch with the problem and to enable him greatly to extend his usefulness. For many years to come they will be an important means of providing the agriculture teachers in elementary grades. Even if they should eventually cease to be important means of preparing teachers, such temporary agencies—much improved and intensified—will always be needed to reestablish teachers in the faith and to aid them in keeping alive to the progress of their time.

# (A).—SUMMER SCHOOLS.

The vacation school probably affords the best means of aiding the teacher who can not take a year or more for preparation. schools are of two orders: (1) those connected with an institution; (2) those held by State departments of education, being in the nature of prolonged and specialized institutes. If a person devotes himself to mathematics, language, literature, or science in a good summer school of six weeks' duration connected with an institution, he is able to receive a year's college credit for it; there is no reason why he should not cover similar ground in agriculture, if the subject is well taught. The summer schools are becoming more and more explicit and concrete. When they are held at an established institution, they have the advantage of the facilities that have been collected through years of effort. They are also dominated by the teaching spirit, as most of the students are themselves teachers. For agriculture teaching these schools may be very effective, because they come at a season when crops are growing. Many institutions now provide summer schools or sessions in which agricultural and kindred subjects are offered. It will not be long before all agricultural colleges will offer such work. This summer-school work in agriculture is coming to be very direct and practical. The University of Maine, for example, offers a five weeks' course in which one week is given to soils, one to plants, one to animals, one to birds and insects, and one to agricultural economics.

In many of the States the departments of public instruction hold one or more summer schools or institutes of one to four weeks, called also "summer normals" and "junior normals," for the benefit of teachers, at which definite agricultural subjects are taught. The college of agriculture often cooperates. In Minnesota, for example, about thirty-five summer training schools are held, that are in session from four to six weeks. These schools are supported by legislative appropriations. One or more lecturers are employed at these schools "to arouse the interest of teachers in the subject of agriculture and to outline simple courses of work that can be carried out by rural

teachers." Other States follow similar plans. One difficulty often reported is that speakers do not really give instruction in agriculture, but expand on the beauties of country life and on the means of keeping the boys on the farm.

# (B).—THE REGULAR TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

It is noticeable that even the regular brief institutes and teachers' meetings, held throughout the year, now are giving much attention to agricultural subjects, most often, perhaps, in their nature-study phases. These meetings may render the greatest help in putting teachers in touch with the most recent progress, new books, and new methods, although it should be distinctly understood that they can never of themselves give teachers sufficient training for any really effective teaching of agriculture. In their agricultural work, they are yet too prone to emphasize the extraordinary, the semisensational, and the wonderful, evidencing the fact that we are now in the exploitational stage of our agricultural education evolution. The teacher who is not well grounded may be led astray.

#### (c).—LECTURES.

One of the most useful recent movements is the interchange of speakers between teachers' institutes and farmers' institutes. The agricultural colleges are also called on for much lecture work on educational topics; this is good both for the people and the college. Farmers are being called on more and more to recite their experiences. The farmers' institute organization in Illinois has been able to create a strong sentiment in favor of teaching agriculture in the rural schools, being regarded by the Superintendent of Public Instruction as the most powerful agency in this work. In other States the institutes have exerted a similar effect by means of traveling speakers. Such work not only establishes a point of view in the people, but discovers the promising teachers here and there and gives them courage and support.

# (D).—CORRESPONDENCE AND LEAFLET WORK.

This class of work has now assumed large proportions in some quarters, and has fairly passed the epoch of hostile criticism, although it has not yet passed its experimental stage. When it has fully passed this stage, much of its spontaneity and usefulness will have ceased. The correspondence and leaflet method does not make as strong impression on the teacher as good summer school work or other means of direct personal contact with a good teacher; but it is most effective in arousing a sentiment for better things, and it may be very useful to the individual teacher who wants to work

at his problem quietly and resourcefully. It produces the maximum result at the minimum expense. Various clubs are organized, and crop-growing and exhibition contests are arranged. Combined with an organized lecture system and visitation system, it is probably the most powerful single engine to aid the teacher of agriculture and related subjects in the rural schools. Its greatest danger is its tendency to hold too many names on the lists, thereby limiting its usefulness to each one. One of its greatest faults has been the issuing of publications that are too technical and too dryly agricultural. On the whole, no other agency has placed so many real helps before the teacher.

## (E).—SHORT COURSES IN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGES.

Many of the agricultural colleges have long been giving brief courses for farm youth. They are now beginning to adapt some of this instruction to the needs of teachers, and it is probable that the demand for such adaptation will increase. Some of the colleges are offering courses of one and two years' duration, but these partake of the nature of real normal departments and may be considered in a subsequent part of this paper.

In two or three States spring schools are held at the agricultural college. The schedule of such a school given by the North Carolina Agricultural and Mechanical College is as follows:

#### Four weeks' spring normal agricultural courses.

#### [Twenty-four hours per week; total, 88 periods.] Periods. Animal husbandry Dairying \_\_\_\_\_ 8 Horticulture and floriculture Soils and farm crops\_\_\_\_\_ 8 Bacteriology Physiology and hygiene: NATURE STUDY. Plant studies \_\_\_\_\_\_ Animal studies \_\_\_\_\_ 4 Insect studies 4 Common branches: Arithmetic, grammar, geography, reading, and history\_\_ 20 Methods of teaching\_\_\_\_\_ 16 School sanitation

#### (F) .-- PERIPATETIC TEACHERS.

Following the city school plan of having a visiting teacher of music or manual training, some places have adopted a similar plan for rural schools. One teacher can visit several schools, either giving the instruction himself, or, what is better, supervising and directing the work of a teacher in each school. The former phase (the peripatetic

teacher doing all the teaching) may be worth the while in starting the new education, or in the lack of teachers. The second phase (the directing of other teachers) is very effective when the individual teachers are not themselves expert, and it should have a marked effect on the teacher. This plan has been tried in Canada, and one teacher there writes:

The teacher must be trained, and it may be by a graduate of a normal school or an agricultural college, or by a director or supervisor of nature study. I think the last way is a good one. It improves the instruction in the school at the same time that the teacher is being trained, and many teachers think they can learn to better advantage in a school of their own than at a normal school. Of course, normal training should come first, and further training in nature study can be given the teacher while at her work, by a director of nature study; but this director should be an educator and not a mere specialist in some branch of natural science.

In some places it may be possible for a teacher of agriculture in a high school to inspect and supervise the agriculture teaching in the elementary schools of the region. If he is himself well trained, he should be able to exert a great influence in putting the other teachers on their feet.

## (G).—UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

Much of the work of the national Department of Agriculture is distinctly educational and is of great value to teachers; and the Office of Experiment Stations maintains an organization to aid schools, colleges, and teachers in their pedagogical work. This Office is able often to send speakers to teachers' institutes and elsewhere; it maintains a large correspondence with school men; it publishes bulletins of information and advice on school gardening and agricultural teaching; it collects data on both foreign and American school work for the purpose of keeping the public informed of the state of agricultural education; and in general it lends counsel and encouragement to those in need of it.

#### (2).—THE TRAINING OF NEW TEACHERS.

We now come to the real question before us—where the agriculture teachers of the future are to be prepared.

Seven types of institutions or organizations are now beginning to train teachers for agriculture: (a) State normal schools; (b) local normal schools; (c) high schools and training classes; (d) separate agricultural schools; (e) special detached foundations for industrial work; (f) education departments of colleges and universities, and teachers' colleges; (g) agricultural colleges. It is not the purpose of this report to make any full discussion of these categories, unless perhaps the last one, but only to indicate what seems to be the most



promising field for each group of institutions. The agencies comprised in the above categories are not always distinct from some of those that aim chiefly to aid the present-day teachers (see page 25). These two groups merge, some of the shorter-course agencies often being conducted by the organizations mentioned in the present list. The purpose of the division into the two groups, however, is not to classify organizations or agencies, but to clarify the discussion by calling attention to the two main lines of effort. In general, an organization that maintains a continuous course of work for at least one school year is placed in this second group. It is not the object, in either of these groups, to make a complete list of the subclasses of institutions or organizations, but only to indicate the leading types. may probably be taken for granted that in the end adequate preparation for the teaching of agriculture in the secondary schools, special industrial schools, and normal schools can be secured only in some kind of professional institution organized for the training of teachers: but the serious work of training teachers for agriculture in the schools is only begun here and there, and adequate systems are vet to be worked out.

### (A).—STATE NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Nearly all the correspondents who have contributed suggestions to this report express the opinion that the regular normal schools should train teachers for agriculture. Theoretically this may be true, but the normal schools, as other institutions, face the practical conditions under which they exist. In a western State where cities are few and small, where agriculture is the dominant industry, and where normal schools are new, the educational problem is very different from what may obtain in one of the easternmost States. In the Eastern States the normal schools are taxed to their full capacity to supply teachers for the cities; the cities pay good wages for teachers; the normal schools are likely to be located in cities and without farm land; their energies are consumed in a line of work for which they have become adapted by years of effort. In such cases good agricultural work can not be added without a new and radical type of extension of the school; and it then becomes a question whether it would be better for the State to make such extension or to establish a new kind of training school elsewhere. It is a question, also, whether the normal method, as developed in some of these schools, is sufficiently elastic and adaptable to render good agriculture teaching possible. At all events, one can not look to all the existing normal schools in the older States, or even to any considerable part of them, for the training of teachers for this kind of work.

In the Middle West and in the newer States many of the normal schools are beginning to train in agricultural subjects. Heretofore the courses in these subjects have been largely adjuncts to the natural science teaching, but the work is now being differentiated. Georgia it is expected that the State normal school will train teachers of agriculture for the elementary schools. "No one is given a diploma who does not take the prescribed work in agriculture. There is a regular professor of agriculture and he has about 20 acres under cultivation." Such courses, the correspondent thinks, "will assure a constantly increasing number of trained teachers for the elementary schools." For the most part, however, the regular State normal schools, particularly in thickly settled States, will probably train teachers for graded town and city schools rather than for elementary rural schools. Public pressure may force such of them as are most advantageously situated to establish special courses or classes to meet the needs of the rural schools, in much the same way that agricultural colleges have been obliged to organize short courses for farm youth.

In some States a special effort is made to interest the country boys and girls in the normal-school training. In Illinois, for example, a law was passed in 1905, called the "Normal school scholarship law," which provides that one pupil from each township in the State, selected by competitive examination, shall annually be awarded free tuition in one of the five State normal schools for four years. This makes it possible for each of the 1,887 townships of Illinois to have in the normal schools four pupils who at any one time are taking advantage of these scholarships. These boys and girls are from the common schools, graduates of the eighth grade, and, as the law is now working, 95 per cent of them come from the country districts. Having been born and bred on the farm, they are familiar with farm conditions, and have sense experience of farm life. These persons go into the normal schools for one term, two terms, or a year of work, and then return to teach in the country schools, coming again, it may be, to the normal school to do further work. It is expected that this plan will supply many energized teachers for the rural schools.

# (B).—LOCAL NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The inability of the regular normal schools to supply teachers for rural elementary work has led to the establishing of county and other normal schools. In Wisconsin there are sixteen county institutions, and four more in process of organization. The sole purpose of these Wisconsin schools is to train teachers for the rural communities. The diploma is a three-year certificate, permitting the holder

to teach for that length of time in the rural or ungraded schools. These certificates may be renewed for another three years, provided the holder can give evidence of having taught successfully. The Dunn County Normal School, one of the first to be established, has been in operation for eight years, and it is reported that there is scarcely a rural school in the county that is not taught by its graduates. It is apparently only a question of time and legislative action before practically all the counties of the State will have such schools.

The Wisconsin county normal or training schools are among the best institutions yet developed in this country for the direct training of teachers for local rural schools. They are organized for a specific purpose. The salaries are now as good as in the State normal schools. In Menomonie, Wausau, and Marinette the county normal school is in the same building with the county agricultural school; the instructor in agriculture in the latter school takes the normal school students for work in agriculture, and the normal school reciprocates by giving an equivalent amount of academic work to the agricultural students. This tends to set a standard for the pedagogical instruction in such other normal schools as are not fortunate enough to be in direct connection with a school of agriculture. The course of study in the normal schools is now two years, or high school graduates may take a one-year course. A well-known educator of Wisconsin writes that "the schools have so thoroughly approved themselves to school officials and to the public generally in the counties where they have been in existence that it is almost impossible for a person to get a position in the counties where these schools are located who has not had at least the work which the training offers." The work in agriculture in these normal schools is as yet not large, but it will increase. The course of study in the Richland County Training School is here given as an illustration of the content of the work, as all these schools have similar curricula:

#### First year.

FIRST QUARTER:

Algebra. Agriculture. Grammar.

Primary reading and orthoepy.

#### SECOND QUARTER:

Algebra.
 Political geography.
 Composition.
 Expressive reading.

#### THIRD QUARTER:

Algebra.
English history.
Primary constructive work.
Expressive reading.

#### FOURTH QUARTER:

Arithmetic.
United States history.
Spelling and penmanship.
Literary reading.

Second year of the two-year course, or the one-year course for those prepared to take it.

FIRST QUARTER:

Arithmetic.

Drawing.

Reading and orthoppy.

Physical geography. Psychology and pedagogy.

SECOND OUARTER:

Arithmetic.

Grammar. Literature.

Political geography.

Methods.

THIRD QUARTER:

United States history.

Composition.

Literature.

Physiology. Practice teaching.

FOURTH QUARTER:

United States history.

Constitutions.

School management and spelling.

Agriculture.

Practice teaching.

After having taught in a rural school for a time, it is to be expected that most of the graduates who desire to continue to teach will enter State normal schools or other institutions, and prepare for city school work. The rural schools do not vet offer sufficient attractions to secure well-prepared teachers for a long tenure.

### (C) .- HIGH SCHOOLS AND TRAINING CLASSES.

It is often urged that high schools give instruction in agriculture as a part of their general course for the purpose of fitting teachers in the subject. It is very doubtful, however, whether we should really look to the ordinary graduates of high schools for rural teachers. It requires more than the usual maturity, and considerable experience in affairs, to handle a rural elementary school effectively; and if a direct appeal is to be made to the farming constituency on the basis of agricultural work in the school, the teacher must be sure of his practical ground. Again, the high schools are not professional schools, and are not organized for normal work. The teachers that may be expected from them are mostly women. Agriculture should be introduced into the high school for its educational value. It will, then constitute a good ground work for later training in education in a training class or elsewhere.

Another means of fitting teachers for rural elementary schools is in training classes developed in high schools or other institutions. These agencies have been widely adopted, but opinion as to their ultimate value seems to be divided. They are usually organized specially to meet rural school conditions. They are commonly connected with an accepted high school. The course of study covers one year or more. The students may or may not be high school graduates. Usually the work covers the elementary syllabus of the State, and this syllabus may contain agriculture. The successful completion of the course certifies the student to teach in certain of the schools. Agriculture is often a regular part of the course of study in these

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classes. In Michigan "elementary agriculture" is in the fourth quarter of the year's course in the "County normal training classes." In Nebraska a very full two-semester course in agriculture, with laboratory work, is provided for "Normal training in high schools." This normal training in Nebraska is given in the eleventh and twelfth grades. "Credit for such training shall be given upon the completion of the prescribed course in normal training and the regular high school course of study."

A canvass of an apparently representative high school training class in one State showed four members to be high school graduates and nine to have had considerable high school work. Six of them were from farms and considered themselves to be fairly well qualified to teach some of the subjects relating to farming. The ages ranged from 17 to 22, the average being 19. All were women.

A further inquiry in the same State showed that 345 out of 470 training class students had spent most of their lives on the farm. Of this number, 322 considered themselves capable of teaching agriculture, but it should be said that agriculture teaching has not yet been introduced practically in that State. The ages of these students, nearly all women, range from 17 to 34 years, the average being 21 years.

No general opinion can be expressed on the efficiency of training class work in the fitting of persons to teach agriculture, for everything depends on the organization of the enterprise, the safeguards thrown about it, the age, experience, and qualifications of the students, the extent of the agricultural work, and the way in which it is taught. These classes, of one kind and another, are now sending out very many teachers to the rural schools. Their great handicap is that they themselves can not secure teachers properly qualified to give instruction in agriculture. No real preparation of training class students to teach the agriculture of a syllabus can be expected unless the teacher of the class has himself had good preparation in the subject.

# (D).—SEPARATE AGRICULTURAL SCHOOLS.

The county and other schools of agriculture and domestic science that have lately been organized have thus far confined their energies to regular agricultural or industrial work; but many persons expect that they will also become important centers for the training of teachers for elementary and secondary schools. If they enter this field, it is a question whether they will not be in danger of alienating their regular farming support, unless they can command more resources than are now in sight. These schools are organized chiefly to supply a direct agricultural need. It will require considerable increase in funds if they hold this field and also enter another. It

is expected that these schools, of all others, will send youth directly back to the farms. In Wisconsin, where there has been experience in both agricultural and normal work, the two functions are separated; and this would seem to be the logical result for all States.

## (E).—SPECIAL FOUNDATIONS.

Various institutions on private or semiprivate foundations. and not a regular part of public school enterprises, offer facilities for teachers to prepare in agriculture and kindred subjects. A marked example of this group is the Macdonald Institute at the Ontario Agricultural College, Guelph, Canada. "Its equipment and accommodation is ample to furnish long and short courses in home economics, nature study, and manual training—the last two for teachers, male and female, and the home economics for farmers' daughters and other young women who desire to learn the theory and practice of cooking, ventilation, general housekeeping, laundry work, sewing, dressmaking, millinery, home decoration, etc." Summer courses are provided at Guelph: also a one-year normal course "to provide instructors fitted to carry on the work of nature study and school gardens in a group of rural schools, in a large consolidated school, or in an agricultural high school." The new Macdonald College, near Montreal, will have a profound influence on the teaching of country life subjects.

The Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute, Virginia (a parental type of others in the South), provides normal training for negroes and Indians. The year for agricultural students is twelve months, with a vacation of a few days or weeks only. At the close of the academic year class-room work stops, but each student is given work in the different divisions of the department, where he can get experience in planning and directing labor and field operations and in assuming responsibility. At the same time he is given instruction in the best methods of managing labor. Actual class-room work under normal methods, and practical field work, seem to fill a great need in fitting the students for teaching what they have acquired in the class room.

Students of Hampton who design to teach receive, before being graduated, four months' instruction in psychology and the principles of teaching, four hours per week, and also engage for four months in actual teaching in the class room. The student teaches all of the common school subjects of the State of Virginia. A large school garden affords opportunity for the teacher students to work with children in the open during April, May, October, and part of November. For the winter season, an indoor course in nature study and agriculture supplements the outdoor work. Post-graduate students

receive two months' training in teaching classes in the training school. These students teach agriculture and elementary science. They plan their lessons, teach children to work in the garden, and conduct field trips.

## (F) .- EDUCATION DEPARTMENTS AND TEACHERS' COLLEGES.

Much is to be expected of schools and departments of education in universities in the preparing of teachers for the higher ranges of public school teaching in agriculture. This is particularly true when a college or department of agriculture is comprised in the same university. In such case a four-year course can be assembled, involving two years of sound general scientific study, followed by two years in which the study of agriculture and related subjects is combined with training in education, all having special reference to high school and normal school problems. This would involve the modification of some of the regular instruction in the agricultural departments. or, preferably, new courses in them to meet the special needs of teachers. Professional schools of education that do not have regular agricultural connection may well cooperate with a neighboring college of agriculture by incorporating a year, more or less, of the work of such college as a part of its own course of study for those who desire to prepare specially for agriculture teaching. Teachers College of Columbia University in this way catalogues certain courses of the College of Agriculture at Cornell University.

Following is the statement of Teachers College in respect to the cooperation mentioned above (1908):

Agriculture in high schools.—The rapid development of agricultural instruction in many public schools is creating a demand for specially trained teachers. It is the consensus of opinion of school officers that for such instruction there is need of teachers who have been thoroughly trained in general sciences, biology, in particular, with its application to agriculture, and also in the principles of education. Many agricultural colleges give the subject-matter which is needed, but they do not deal with the educational applications. In order to combine the advantages of an agricultural college with those of a strictly educational institution a plan of cooperation has been arranged between Teachers College and the College of Agriculture at Cornell University, whereby students preparing for special work as teachers of agriculture may take the appropriate courses in the science of agriculture at Cornell University (especially principles of agronomy, horticulture, and animal husbandry) and then study the educational problems at Teachers College.

As already stated, it is desirable that agriculture should be combined with nature study and biology, or with nature study and physical science. Such combinations may be made by candidates for the bachelor's and master's degrees at Teachers College. The intimate relation of elementary agriculture to biology and nature study makes it desirable that their educational aspects should be involved in the same courses. Hence the student giving especial attention to agriculture will arrange a course at Teachers College as suggested above for biology and nature study; but having had previous special work in

the subject-matter of agriculture at Cornell University, or elsewhere, the individual work, such as preparation of papers and theses, will in the educational course be centered around problems of agricultural teaching.

Approved courses in the science of agriculture taken in agricultural colleges other than Cornell will be credited at Teachers College.

In the University of Missouri the Teachers' College utilizes courses in the College of Agriculture for teachers who desire to fit themselves for teaching agriculture in the public schools. These courses in the College of Agriculture are in the main distinct from the regular agriculture courses, and are designed primarily for teachers. Credits are given for the work only to students in the Teachers' College who are expecting to be teachers. In addition, for the university students who have taken sufficient of this elementary work for teachers and who have also the requisite preparation in the natural sciences, provision is made for electing and receiving credit for some of the technical courses in agriculture and horticulture which are given in the College of Agriculture. A good many teachers in the Teachers' College are enrolling regularly in these courses in agriculture and horticulture, and some of them later elect the more technical courses in the College of Agriculture, in order still further to increase their training in agricultural subjects for the distinct purpose of enabling them to teach agriculture in the public schools.

Speaking of their various experiences in aiding teachers to handle agricultural work, an officer of the University of Missouri writes as follows:

In my judgment the most effective results in proportion to the energy expended have been secured through the courses offered to teachers in the university. Perhaps the majority of teachers who take agriculture regularly in the university courses do not themselves teach directly in the country schools, but in the better high schools of the State, in smaller towns surrounded by good farming communities. These teachers in the high schools have the training of a large number of young people who teach in the country schools later, so that it is safe to say that every teacher who takes our regular university courses in agriculture reaches with this teaching hundreds of young men and women who will go out into the country schools as teachers. A good many schools of this State are teaching agriculture and kindred subjects in one way or another. Many of them are correlating the work with geography, with language, and even sometimes with other subjects in the schools, through the aid of school gardens or school plantings, and by a study of the material with which the pupils come in contact at their homes. In addition to correlating the work with other subjects, some of the schools give regular courses in agriculture and horticulture.

### (G).—COLLEGES OF AGRICULTURE.

The agricultural colleges are now beginning to devise means of extending their efforts to the training of teachers in agriculture. This movement is of such vast importance in the field of practical pedagogy that it may now be separately discussed in a final chapter.

# PART III.—THE GENERAL OUTLOOK, AND THE SIGNIFI-CANCE OF NORMAL WORK IN THE COLLEGES OF AGRICULTURE.

We have now taken a general look at the demand that is arising for teachers in agriculture of a public school grade, and we have reviewed the main types of agencies that promise to aid us in supplying these teachers. We may now throw these normal agencies into something like a classified system, and indicate the main lines of a rational procedure.

- 1. The elementary schools demand general teaching. Not much that is named agriculture is possible with the pupils of elementary school age, but nature study and the industrial spirit should constitute the foundation of their work. The district rural schools are ele-They pay small wages and offer few attractions to mentary schools. teachers. For the most part they are able to secure the services only of those persons who are on the way to other employment. teachers are mostly women. Until these conditions change, the rural schools must draw their teachers chiefly from the region of the high Whenever good science work is an important part of the high school course of study, and particularly when good agriculture teaching is also introduced as a regular part of the curriculum, a training class in connection therewith and requiring a high school diploma for the completion of the work should be able to make great progress in preparing teachers for the elementary grades. Some of the teachers for the grades will be recruited from the ranks of those who do not complete normal school courses, and some States or counties may provide special means of training such teachers by organizing normal school work below the regular normal school grade. In the end special local means or institutions must be provided for the training of these teachers, and it is time that this were recognized. At present, however, it may be repeated, it is incumbent on the secondary school region to train the teachers for the elementary region.
- 2. The teachers who are to train these elementary teachers must themselves be trained. They must have real preparation, if the agriculture teaching is to be of permanent value; they can not be trained in the common teachers' institutes or by other mere short cuts. The teachers of this secondary normal work must be trained in institutions where genuine agriculture is established; some of the State normal

schools may provide this work; some of the special separate schools of agriculture may provide it; some of the education departments or teachers' colleges in association with agricultural departments of higher institutions may provide it; the agricultural colleges will be obliged to provide it. The best trained and best adapted of the graduates of the colleges of agriculture, however, will find better openings than most schools of the secondary region are at present willing to pay. The preparation of such teachers should include general scholarship and training in the principles of education, as well as specialized scholarship in agriculture and other industrial work, and also sufficient hand practice outdoors and indoors to give them command of the technique of instruction.

- 3. If the regular agriculture teachers of secondary schools and the teachers of secondary training classes are to be prepared in the State normal schools, then these normal school teachers must themselves be trained in agriculture. Their training must be more than can be secured in the normal school itself. They may be trained in education departments of universities and in teachers' colleges, provided always that these institutions are associated with real agricultural work, such as is possible in an agricultural college; or they may be trained in the agricultural college itself.
- 4. The agricultural college necessarily stands at the head of the system. It holds the key to the situation. It must provide the leaders.

The body of knowledge and philosophy that is comprised under the modern word "agriculture" is of such vast range, the subjects are so numerous and so difficult, the equipment required to teach it is so large and so expensive, that only such institutions as are specially devoted to the subject can understand it or properly represent it. These institutions express a great phase of our national life. More than any other institutions they stand for the very democracy and nativeness of education, for their purpose is nothing less than to reach the last man on the last farm by means of the very things by which that man lives.

It is good to have seen these colleges of agriculture gradually emerge and then enlarge their territory, quietly annexing this subject and that, until they have come to be one of the great social and spiritual forces of the day. They have not yet developed a pride of education, and they have not reached the limit of the territory that they will annex. It may be found, in good time, that they have forced new standards of education. These colleges will now add normal departments and they will attract the teaching type of mind. The graduates of these departments will supply some of the normal schools; some of the high schools; some of the training classes and special normal organizations; and what they give will be passed on

from school to school and grade to grade, until it fertilizes the whole enterprise. This is not at all a mere visionary outlook, and for the very good reason that the agricultural colleges are the only teaching institutions that are in possession, at first hand, of the essential facts of rational agriculture.

A number of the colleges of agriculture have already undertaken to develop teachers' courses, either on their own account, or in association with the education departments of the universities with which they are connected. Congress has also given them a direct opportunity to establish such work in a provision of the Nelson amendment to the agricultural appropriation bill for 1907-8: "Said colleges may use a portion of this money for providing courses for the special preparation of instructors for teaching the elements of agriculture and the mechanic arts."

The Nelson amendment provides, when it shall have matured, for the appropriation of \$25,000 annually to the land-grant colleges of each State. This is the only national appropriation that specifically recognizes this particular kind of college work. This fund will afford an unexcelled opportunity for some of the stronger institutions to establish a department or school in which persons shall be trained directly for the teaching of agriculture and the mechanic arts in the public schools.

#### MASSACHUSETTS AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

The Massachusetts Agricultural College established in 1907 a department of agricultural education, with a professorship. W. R. Hart, formerly of the State Normal School at Peru, Nebr., has been chosen to head the department. This department is organized under a State law that makes an annual appropriation of \$5,000. This law originated from a recommendation of the Massachusetts commission on industrial and technical education, in 1906. (The report of this commission is a most valuable contribution to the subject of industrial education.) The first move was the organizing of a summer school of agriculture of four weeks, which had an attendance of considerably more than two hundred. Following is a course of instruction for the year 1908-9:

- 1. The meaning of education, dealing with the biological and psychological aspects of the processes of learning.
  - 2. Vocational education, being chiefly historical. This is given in 1907-8.
  - 3. Methods in agricultural education.
  - 4. Seminar, a study of problems in agricultural education.

#### COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS.

The College of Agriculture of the University of Illinois has an instructor in secondary school agriculture, D. O. Barto, an experienced school-teacher and a graduate of the college, who for two years has

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been employed to give his entire time to the question of teaching agriculture in the public schools. He visits farmers' institutes and teachers' institutes, freely discussing these questions, and offers two courses of instruction during the university year. One of these courses is designed to train teachers for the secondary schools, and the other to train them for the grades. These courses are repeated in the summer session. The particular courses offered in 1907–8 are as follows:

- 1. Principles and methods of high school agriculture.—This course, designed for students who have had not less than two years' work in agriculture, will be devoted mainly to considering what features of agricultural science are best adapted to high school conditions, the best order and methods of their presentation, how to suit the course and instruction to the special interests and needs of each school community, what laboratory work shall be given, what apparatus may be used, what field experiments can be planned and executed.
- 2. Elementary agriculture.—This course is for those students who are preparing to teach in secondary schools, especially for teachers of science, but who have had no work in agriculture. A study of the soil, its origin, nature, functions, properties, and classification; problems of temperature, aeration, control of moisture; enrichment and impoverishment of the soil; the plant, how it feeds and grows, its modes of reproduction, factors in crop production, rotation, value and use of legumes, selection and testing of seed, their types and breeds, care and management; dairying, production of milk, testing and care of milk; farm plans, farm machinery; economics of agriculture.
- 3. Farmers' institute management.—A study of the farmers' institutes as a factor in our system of public education. This course is designed to set forth principles underlying the organization and conduct of farmers' institutes and agricultural associations and to systematize into definite lines the knowledge acquired in college to the end that the student may render more distinct service in institute and agricultural associations. Lectures; assigned readings and parliamentary practice.

#### NEW YORK STATE COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE.

In the New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University a two-years' normal course in nature study, leading to regular academic credits, was organized in 1903, and this is now known as a normal department, with six persons giving instruction. This organization is the natural outgrowth of the nature study and other extension enterprise that has been under way in the institution for many years. Summer schools of nature study were held in 1899 and 1900. A regular summer session is in process of organization. A rural schoolhouse, accommodating thirty pupils and provided with workroom and located in a school garden, is part of the equipment. Following is the course of study for 1907-8:

This course is organized to help persons who expect to teach nature study and country-life subjects in the public schools. Persons actually engaged in

teaching and also all persons in the university who signify their intention to teach are eligible. A certificate will be given on the completion of sixty hours in the courses prescribed below, together with such other work in the College of Agriculture as may be approved by the director. Designed to prepare students to teach elementary agriculture. Practice work is given in the public schools of Ithaca.

	No. of course.	First term.	Second term.
FIRST YEAR.			
Botany	1 1	1 8	1
Botany	2		1 2
Invertebrate zoology	1	2	<i>-</i>
Vertebrate zoology	2	2	
Entomology	8		. 8
Physical geography		8	8
Chemistry	185	3	
Nature study		8	
Nature study	94		2
		16	- 11
Elective, at least two-thirds agriculture	!	0-2	4-7
The state and an amount of the state of the			
SECOND YEAR.			
Vertebrate zoology	1 8	8	3
Botany	i 5		2
Entomology	15	3	3
Soils		3	
Farm crops			8
Nature study	92		1
Nature study	93	2	
		11	12
Elective, at least two-thirds agriculture	ĺ	4-7	3-6
Tierriac, at icast tac. things atticulture		2-1	•••

- 91. Nature study.—Lectures and discussion of methods. First half year. Credit, three hours. M., W., F., 12.
- 92. Home nature-study work.—Work in the training classes in the Ithaca schools in which students are also to take part. Second half year. Credit, one hour. By appointment.
- 93. Practice work in nature study in the public schools of Ithaca, comprising schoolroom work, excursions, and other exercises with children. First half year. Credit, two hours. By appointment.
- 94. School gardens, comprising actual garden making with children on school grounds and in the university school gardens. In winter the work will be conducted in the forcing houses where plant-growing subjects will be taken up in such a way as to adapt them to elementary school conditions. Second half year. Credit, two hours.
- 98. Seminary in nature study and elementary agriculture.—Devoted to the study of the methods of teaching nature study and elementary agriculture, and to the review and criticism of courses now offered in our elementary and secondary schools. Credit, one or two hours. F., 12.
- 99. Nature study.—Advanced course. Individual work on special problems. Registration only after consultation.

#### UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

In the Teachers College of the University of Missouri provision is made for pedagogical work in agriculture. In this college John C. Whitten is "professor of the teaching of horticulture," and Frederick B. Mumford "professor of the teaching of agriculture." The following courses are offered by these officers:

#### (a) Agriculture.

#### Professor MUMFORD.

1a. Soils and plant studies, with reference to agriculture.—This course will aim to give a clear general knowledge of the principles of agriculture. The character of the work is adapted to those who are preparing to teach in the elementary schools. Three times a week, first semester. Hours to be arranged.

2. The principles of agriculture.—Fundamental conceptions of soils, plants, and animals, and their application to agricultural practice. Lectures, reading, laboratory work, and field excursions. A course for high school and academy teachers. Three times a week. Hours to be arranged.

Other courses in agriculture may be elected by students in the Teachers College.

#### (b) Horticulture.

#### Professor WHITTEN.

1b. Cultivated plants.—How they grow under culture, their relation to their environments, and common methods of propagating and managing plants; the materials for a school garden and how to use them. Lectures and laboratory. This course is intended for those who are preparing to teach in elementary schools and who may not have time for the longer courses offered by the department. Three times a week. Hours to be arranged.

la and 2b. These two courses taken together constitute a year's work in which the topics mentioned in 1b are given fuller and more scientific treatment. They can be taken after 1b or independently of it, and are designed to meet the needs of those who are preparing to teach in any branch of biological science. Three times a week.

4a. The evolution of cultivated plants.—Lectures and assigned readings. A study of organic evolution as applied to the modifications of plants, particularly those in cultivation. Three times a week. Hours to be arranged.

Other courses in horticulture are open to students in the Teachers College.

#### COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MAINE.

The College of Agriculture of the University of Maine late in 1907 organized the following course in agriculture for those who intend to become teachers of this subject in the public schools:

This course is offered in response to a call for teachers capable of teaching elementary agriculture in schools and academies. In order to receive a degree one hundred and fifty hours, or 30 credits, must be received. The following course as laid down covers one hundred and forty-six hours. The remaining six hours have been purposely left open for elective work in order that the student may receive as liberal a training in cultural studies as is consistent with the amount of technical work necessary. It is recommended that the electives be taken from the departments of biology, history, economics, chemistry, physics, or English.

#### Freshman year.

	Freshm	an year.	
FALL SEMESTER.		SPRING SEMESTER.	
Subject.	Hours.	Subject.	Hours.
Chemistry	2	Chemistry	3
Laboratory chemistry, 2 a	1	Laboratory chemistry, 2 a	1
Public speaking	1	Public speaking	1
English composition	3	English composition	3
Drawing, 6 b	2	Drawing, 6 b	2
Modern language	3	Modern language	2
Algebra	5	Solid geometry	} 5
Military, 5 a	$2\frac{1}{2}$	Trigonometry	}
		Military, 5 a	$2\frac{1}{2}$
	191		191
£	3ophomo	ore year.	
Soils	2	Fertilizers	2
Soil laboratory, 2 a	1	Animal breeding	2
General biology	2	Stock judging, 2 a	1
Laboratory biology, 2 a	1	General botany	2
Qualitative analysis, 8 a	4	Laboratory botany, 4 a	2
History of education	3	History of education	2
English	1	Qualitative analysis, 8 a	4
Wood shop work, 4 a	2	Principles of fruit growing	2
Physical training	3	Forge work a	2
Elective work	(?)	Physical training	3
	163	•	193
	Junior	NOGE	108
			_
Agricultural engineering, 4 a	2	Farm crops	2
Animal breeding	2	Laboratory farm crops, 2 d	1
Stock judging, 2 d	1	Vegetable gardening	2
Physiology	2	Handicraft, 4 a	2
General methodology	3	Child study	3
Pomology	2	Veterinary science	2
Laboratory pomology, 2 a	1	School gardening, 3 b	1
Modern language	3	Modern language	2
Physical training	3	Physical training	<del>3</del>
Elective work	(?) i	Elective work	(;)
	163	-	153
	163 Senior	-	153
Animal breeding	- 1	-	153
Animal breedingBiological chemistry	Senior	year.	
<del>-</del>	Senior 2	year.  Dairying  Laboratory dairying, 3 a  Agricultural chemistry	2 11 5
Biological chemistry	Senior 2 5	year.  Dairying  Laboratory dairying, 3 a  Agricultural chemistry  Entomology	2 11 5 2
Biological chemistry Agricultural botany Laboratory agricultural botany,	Senior 2 5	year.  Dairying  Laboratory dairying, 3 a  Agricultural chemistry  Entomology  Laboratory entomology, 4 a	2 11/3 5 2
Biological chemistry	Senior 2 5 2	year.  Dairying  Laboratory dairying, 3 a  Agricultural chemistry  Entomology	2 1½ 5 2 2
Biological chemistry Agricultural botany Laboratory agricultural botany,	Senior 2   5   2   1	year.  Dairying  Laboratory dairying, 3 a  Agricultural chemistry  Entomology  Laboratory entomology, 4 a	2 11/3 5 2
Biological chemistry	Senior 2   5   2   1   2	year.  Dairying Laboratory dairying, 3 a Agricultural chemistry Entomology Laboratory entomology, 4 a Veterinary science	2 1½ 5 2 2
Biological chemistry	Senior 2   5   2   1   2   5	year.  Dairying	2 1 1 5 5 2 2 2 2
Biological chemistry	Senior 2   5   2   1   2   5	year.  Dairying	2 11 5 2 2 2 2

<sup>•</sup> Two hours count as one.

Three hours count as one.



NORTH CAROLINA COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE AND THE MECHANIC ARTS.

The North Carolina College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts is now providing a one-year normal course in agriculture, the following announcement of which will appear in the next catalogue of the college:

One-year normal course in agriculture, North Carolina College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts.

	Per	Periods a week-		
Subject.	First term.	Second term.	Third term.	
Methods of teaching agriculture	2	2	9	
Agriculture (general)	8	3	8	
Horticulture	3	3 '	8	
Dairying	5	,		
Diseases of live stock		5		
Botany Poultry	3	3		
Entomology		'	2	
Agricultural literature	1	1	1	

Electives in college departments, e. g., agricultural chemistry, land surveying, physical and physical laboratory, drawing, and others.

#### NORTH DAKOTA AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

The College of Agriculture in North Dakota offers a "teachers' course," described as follows (1907-8):

Under the provisions of the "Nelson law" enacted by Congress in 1907 the following course is offered for the training of teachers, fitting them to teach the elements of mechanic arts and agriculture. It is also the aim of this course to provide the three terms' work in pedagogy which graduates must have in order to benefit by the statute entitling them to a State certificate on their diplomas. To the many students who frequently have to turn to teaching temporarily before completing their studies, this line of work will be found very helpful.

During the past three years regular work has been given in nature study and elements of agriculture in order to meet the rapidly increasing demand for rural teachers able to instruct in these subjects. In addition opportunity was given to review all subjects required for first and second grade certificates. As there was no desire to duplicate the courses of the normal schools or to enter on their field of pedagogy, the work was neither emphasized nor given prominence.

The new law, however, has marked out a definite field for agricultural colleges in the training of teachers and given them a mission in harmony with their general plan and purpose. In order to fit teachers to teach elements of mechanic arts and agriculture and fill positions in common, village, or city schools, it has become necessary to add another year's work to the course as outlined heretofore. The units constituting this additional year are all, with the exception of the history of education, of a technical nature, and fall either under the head of mechanic arts or agriculture, or the pedagogy of these branches.

The entering student is expected to have had eighth grade or one year's high school training. In addition to a thorough training in elementary subjects, there is required a course in elementary agriculture taught by the professor of agriculture. The course covers three years. The agriculture is as follows:

Teachers' Agriculture II.—Agricultural physics, fall term.

Teachers' Agriculture III.—Agronomy, winter term.

Teachers' Agriculture IV.—Animal husbandry, with laboratory, spring term. Teachers' Agriculture V.—Horticulture, afternoon work, spring term.

Following is the full schedule of the teachers' course at the North Dakota College:

#### First year.

Fall.	Winter.	Spring.
Grammar, 8 a. m. Civics, 9 a. m. Reading, 10 a. m. Arithmetic, 11 a. m. Nature study, 3 to 5 p. m.	Physiology, 8 a. m. United States history, 9 a. m. Geography, 10 a. m. Grammar, 11 a. m. Elements of agriculture I,3 to 5 p. m.	Grammar, 8 a. m. United States history, 9 a. m. Theory and practice, 10 a. m. Formation of solls, 11 a. m. Nature study, 3 to 5 p. m.

#### Second year.

Psychology, 8 a. m. Elements of chemistry, 9 a. m. ——, 10 a. m. Zoology, 11 a. m. Chemical laboratory, 2 to 5 p. m. Zoology, 2 to 5 p. m.		History of education, 8 a. m. Physics II, 9 a. m. Algebra II, 10 a. m. English III, 11 a. m. Physics laboratory, 2 to 5 p. m.
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#### Third year.

Elements of agriculture II, 11 a. m. Shop (manual training IV), p. m. Horticulture, 2 to 5 p. m. Horticulture, 2 to 5 p. m. Horticulture, 3 to 5 p. m. Agriculture, 3 to 5 p. m.	Manual training I, 8 a. m. Philosophy of education, 9 a. m. Algebra III, 10 a. m. Elements of agriculture II, 11 a. m. Shop (manual training IV), p. m.	Methods, 10 a. m. Elements of agriculture III, 11 a. m.	Botany, 2 to 5 p. m. Horticulture, 2 to 5 p. m.
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#### CONNECTICUT AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

The Connecticut Agricultural College has for several years offered a two-year course of preparation for the special teaching of nature study in the public schools. The course is offered to graduates of high schools and to those who have had the first two years of their regular course in agriculture or in home making. This course "for rural school teaching" includes much work in agricultural subjects, selected from the regular courses in the college. It is intended to be supplemented by the work for teachers in the summer school, and by one year in a good normal school.

### WASHINGTON (STATE) AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.

In addition to the regular courses in the college at Pullman, Washington, courses are offered in education, specially intended to train teachers in methods. Whenever a student expresses a desire to engage in school teaching, he is encouraged to elect at least two courses in the department of education. One of these courses is "the principles of education," the other "methods of teaching agriculture." The latter is taught largely by the department of agriculture itself.

The above examples constitute the only instances known to the writer of agricultural colleges, or agricultural departments of colleges, in the United States that have actually put pedagagical courses or departments into operation, although other colleges or departments are each cooperating more or less with the education department of the university or college of which it is a part. Several of the colleges of agriculture are now considering the establishing of education courses. It is probable that such courses will constitute the most marked departure in agricultural college work in the immediate future. As yet the whole subject is in a formative and experimental stage. These colleges have a very large and varied constituency, and they properly represent all the phases of country life. It is incumbent on them to reach directly the educational phase, and it is incumbent on the people to see that they are able to enter this field, for this is a necessary condition to the evolution of the public schools.

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  Delivered at twenty-eighth annual meeting of the Society for the promotion of agricultural science, 1907. [1907.] Cover title. 23 p. 8°.
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From advance sheets of U.S. Consular reports.

- ——— Instruction in agriculture in rural schools of France. Report of the Commissioner for the year 1897-98, v. 2, p. 1614-1620.
  - Department of agriculture. Office of experiment stations. The teaching of agriculture in the rural common schools. [Washington, Government printing office, 1904.] 20 p. 8°. (Circular of information no. 60.) Caption title.

This ninth report of the committee on methods of teaching agriculture of the association of American agricultural colleges and experiment stations was presented to the convention of the association held at Des Moines, Iowa, November 1-3, 1904. For previous reports see U. S. Dept. Agr. Office of experiment stations. Bulletins 41, p. 57; 49, p. 29; 65, p. 79; 76, p. 39; 99, p. 86; 115, p. 59; 123, p. 45; 142, p. 63, and Circulars 32, 37, 39, 41, 45, 49, and 55.

### INDEX.

- Agricultural and Mechanical College of North Carolina, spring normal course, 28.
  - normal course in agriculture, 46.
- Agricultural colleges. See Colleges of agriculture.
- Barto, D. O., instructor in secondary school agriculture, University of Illinois, 41.
- Agricultural schools, a means of training teachers, 34.
- Aids to teachers of agriculture, 25-29.
- Alabama, district industral schools, 21.
- Bailey, Prof. L. H., reference in letter of transmittal, 6.
- Biology, relation to instruction in agriculture in high schools, 19.
- Brown, Elmer Ellsworth, Commissioner of Education, letter of transmittal, 5.
- Bureau of Education, duties under Morrill acts, 5.
- Canada, peripatetic teachers of agriculture, 29.
- College of Agriculture, Cornell University, arrangement for normal training in agriculture, 36.
- College of Agriculture, North Dakota, teachers' course, 46.
- College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, course in high school agriculture, 42.
- College of Agriculture, University of Maine, pedagogical course, 44.
- Colleges of agriculture, short courses for teachers, 28.
  - provision for training teachers, 37. significance of normal work, 39-48.
  - head of system of normal training in agriculture, 40.
- Columbia University, teachers college, arrangement for normal teaching in agriculture, 36.
- Consolidation of rural schools, discussed,
- Connecticut Agricultural College, normal course in nature study, 47.
- Cornell University, arrangement for normal teaching in agriculture, 36.

  normal course in nature study, 42.

- Correspondence method of aiding teachers of agriculture, 27.
- Country schools, instruction in agriculture, 9-18.
- County schools of agriculture, a means of training teachers, 34.
- Course of study, for rural schools, in agriculture, 14-18.
  - for high schools, in agriculture, 18-21.
  - in agricultural colleges, for teachers, 28. of Richland County Training School, 32.
  - of Department of Agricultural Education, Massachusetts Agricultural College, 41.
- for training high school teachers of agriculture, University of Illinois, 42.
- of normal department of New York State College of Agriculture, 43.
- in agriculture in Teachers College, University of Missouri, 44.
- in horticulture in Teachers College, University of Missouri, 44.
- in University of Maine for intending teachers of agriculture, 45.
- in normal department, North Carolina College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, 46.
- in teachers' course of North Dakota Agricultural College, 47.
- Department of Agriculture, aids to teachers, 29.
- Dunn County (Wis.) Normal School, influence on neighboring rural schools, 32.
- Education departments of universities, normal training in agriculture, 36.
- Elementary schools, instruction in agriculture, 9-18, 39.
  - not a field for trained teachers of agriculture, 23.
- Farmers' institutes, cooperation with teachers' institutes, 27.
- a study in University of Illinois, 42.
- Geography, methods of instruction, 12. Georgia, district industrial schools, 21.
- training of teachers of agriculture in State normal school, 31.
- Grounds, of rural schools, 14.
- Hampton (Va.) Normal and Agricultural Institute, normal training in agriculture, 35.

Hart, W. R., professor of agricultural education, Massachusetts Agricultural College, 41.

High schools, instruction in agriculture, 18. salaries offered to teachers of agriculture, 23.

for training teachers of agriculture, 33.

training at Teachers College for teachers of agriculture, 36.

training of normal teachers of agriculture, 39, 40.

training in University of Illinois for teachers of agriculture, 42.

Horticulture, pedagogical work in Teachers College, University of Missouri, 44. Illinois, provisions of normal school scholarship law, 31.

influence of farmers' institute organization, 27.

Industrial education in schools for rural communities, report of committee of National Council of Education, 16, 18, 19.

Industrial schools, a means of training teachers of agriculture, 34, 35.

Institutes for teachers, attention to agricultural subjects, 27.

Laboratories for instruction in agriculture, in rural schools, 14. in high schools, 20.

Leaflet method of aiding teachers of agriculture, 27.

Lectures, for teachers of agriculture, 27.

Local normal schools, work in agriculture,

 Lyon, H. H., course of study in agriculture for a rural school, 17.

Macdonald College, Montreal, influence on teaching agriculture, 35.

Macdonald Institute, Ontario Agricultural College, training of teachers of agriculture, 35.

Marinette, Wis., cooperation of normal and agricultural schools, 32.

Massachusetts Agricultural College, department of agricultural education, 41.

Means of training teachers of agriculture, 23-37.

Menominee, Wis., cooperation of normal and agricultural schools, 32.

Methods of teaching, in rural schools, 12. for agricultural subjects, 24.

Michigan, agriculture in course of training classes, 34.

Minnesota, agricultural high school, 21. study of agriculture in summer schools,

26.
Morrill act, reference in letter of transmittal, 5.

Mumford, Frederick B., professor of the teaching of agriculture, University of Missouri, 44.

National Council of Education, report of committee on industrial education for rural schools, 16, 18, 19.

Nature study, in rural schools, 14-18. an outdoor process, 24.

in spring normal course of A. and M. College of North Carolina, 28.

normal course at New York State College of Agriculture, 42.

normal course in Connecticut Agricultural College, 47.

Nebraska, agriculture in normal course for high schools, 34.

Nelson amendment to agricultural appropriation bill of 1908, reference in letter of transmittal, 5.

provisions and possibilities, 41.

response of North Dakota Agricultural College, 46.

New York, study of agriculture in a district school, 16.

special agricultural schools, 21.

New York State College of Agriculture, normal course in nature study, 42.

Normal classes in high schools for teachers of agriculture, 33.

Normal schools, training for teachers of agriculture, 30, 31.

North Carolina College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, spring normal course, 28.

normal course in agriculture, 46.

North Dakota Agricultural College, teachers' course, 46.

Office of Experiment Stations, aids to teachers, 29.

Ontario Agricultural College, Macdonald Institute, training of teachers of agriculture, 35.

Peripatetic teachers, for teaching agriculture in rural schools, 28.

Richland County (Wis.) Training School, course of study, 32.

Rural schools, instruction in agriculture, 9-18.

Scholarships in normal schools, provisions of Illinois law, 31.

School gardens, for rural schools, 14. for high schools, 20.

Schoolhouses, character in rural districts, 13.

Secondary schools. See High schools.

Short courses in agricultural colleges for teachers, 28.

Special schools, instruction in agriculture, 21. demand for special teachers of agricul-

ture, 23. Special teachers of agriculture for rural

schools, 13, 28. State Normal School of Georgia, training

of teachers of agriculture, 31. State normal schools, training of teach-

ers of agriculture, 30, 40. Summer schools, aids to teachers of agriculture, 26.

conducted by New York State College of Agriculture for nature study, 42.

O

Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois, on influence of farmers' institutes, 27.

Teachers of agriculture, extensional aids, 25-29.

means of training, 23-37.

possibilities in elementary schools, 39.

Teachers College, Columbia University, arrangement for normal training in agriculture, 36.

Teachers College, University of Missouri, normal training in agriculture, 37, 43. Teachers' colleges, normal training in agri-

culture, 36.

Teachers' institutes, attention to agricul-

tural subjects, 27. speakers from Office of Experiment Sta-

tions, 29.
Training classes, in high schools, means of

training teachers of agriculture, 33.

Training of teachers of agriculture, means, 23-37.

in agricultural colleges, 39-48.

Universities, normal training in agriculture in education departments, 36.

University of Illinois, normal course in agriculture, 41.

University of Maine, summer school of agriculture, 26.

pedagogical course in college of agriculture, 44.

University of Minnesota, agricultural high school, 21.

University of Missouri, normal training in agriculture, 37, 43.

Vacation schools, aids to teachers of agriculture, 26.

Washington (State) Agricultural Coilege, courses in education, 48.

Wausau, Wis., cooperation of normal and agricultural schools, 32.

Whitten, John C., professor of the teaching of horticulture, University of Missouri, 43.

Wisconsin, county industrial schools, 21. county normal schools, 31.

separation of agricultural and normal work, 35.

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# UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

**BULLETIN, 1908: NO. 2** 

WHOLE NUMBER 385

# LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

OF THE

# UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

1867-1907



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1908

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#### BULLETIN OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

#### 1906.

- No. 1. The Education Bill of 1906 for England and Wales, as it passed the House of Commons. By Anna Tolman Smith, of the Bureau of Education. 2d edition, 1907. pp. 39.
- No. 2. German views of American education, with particular reference to industrial development. Collated from the Reports of the Royal Prussian Industrial Commission of 1904. By William N. Hailmann, Professor of the History and Philosophy of Education, Chicago Normal School. 2d edition, 1907. pp. 55.
- No. 3. State school systems: Legislation and judicial decisions relating to public education, October 1, 1904, to October 1, 1906. By Edward C. Elliott, Professor of Education in the University of Wisconsin. 2d edition, revised, 1907. pp. 156.

#### 1907

- No. 1. The continuation school in the United States. By Arthur J. Jones, Fellow in Education, Teachers College, Columbia University. pp. 157.
- No. 2. Agricultural education, including nature study and school gardens. By James Ralph Jewell, sometime Fellow of Clark University. 2d edition, revised, 1908. pp. 148.
- No. 3. The auxiliary schools of Germany. Six lectures by B. Maennel, Rector of Mittelschule in Halle. Translated by Fletcher Bascom Dresslar, Associate Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching, University of California, pp. 137.
- No. 4. The elimination of pupils from school. By Edward L. Thorndike, Professor of Educational Psychology, Teachers College, Columbia University, pp. 63.

#### 1908.

No. 1. On the training of persons to teach agriculture in the public schools, By Liberty Hyde Balley, Director of the New York State College of Agriculture, at Cornell University. pp. 53.

**BULLETIN, 1908: NO. 2** 

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# CONTENTS.

	Page.
Letter of transmittal	5
I.—Annual statements of the Commissioner	7
II.—Annual reports	7
III.—Circulars of information	41
IV,—Bulletin	48
V.—Miscellaneous publications.	50
Index	55

3

#### LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, May 13, 1908.

Sir: I have the honor to transmit herewith a list of publications of the United States Bureau of Education for the years 1867 to 1907, prepared under the direction of the present librarian of the Bureau, and to recommend that it be published as one of the issues of the Bulletin of this Office.

This list is intended to make the publications of the Bureau better known and to facilitate their use. It should be of service to librarians and to students of special educational problems. I am particularly desirous that so far as possible complete sets of the serial publications of this Office should be found in all of the larger reference libraries, in order that they may be made as widely and immediately useful as they can be made in all parts of the country. This publication will undoubtedly further such distribution and use of the documents referred to, and will answer many of the special inquiries which come from time to time to this Office.

While many of these publications are out of print, it not infrequently happens that additional copies of such numbers are received at the library of the Bureau from various sources and so become available for redistribution. In view of such experience it has not been thought best to designate any of these publications as definitely "out of print." In a few instances, however, not even a single copy is to be found in this library. All such issues are indicated by an asterisk (\*).

A more detailed index of the Annual Reports of the Commissioner of Education is now in preparation.

Very respectfully,

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN,

Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

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# LIST OF PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION 1867-1907.

#### I.—ANNUAL STATEMENTS OF THE COMMISSIONER.

1.	1887	(Dawson)	Washington, 1887.	. 20	3 p.		828
<b>—</b> .	1888	No statem	ent issued.				
2.	1888-	9 (Dawso	n) Washington, 18	89.	19	<b>p.</b>	827
3.	1890	(Harris)	Washington, 1890.	17	p.		168
4.	1891	(Harris)	Washington, 1891.	21	p.		180
5.	1892	(Harris)	Washington, 1892.	21	p.		189
6.	1893	(Harris)	Washington, 1893.	25	p.		204
7.	1894	(Harris)	Washington, 1894.	29	p.		218
8.	1895	(Harris)	Washington, 1895.	27	p.		219
9.	1896	(Harris)	Washington, 1896.	31	p.		280
10.	1897	(Harris)	Washington, 1897.	35	p.		285
11.	1898	(Harris)	Washington, 1898.	32	_		245
12.	1899	(Harris)	Washington, 1899.	47	_		259
13.	1900	(Harris)	Washington, 1900.	49	p.		266
14.	1901	(Harris)	Washington, 1901.	45	-		277
15.	1902	(Harris)	Washington, 1902.	41	-		285
16.	1903	(Harris)	Washington, 1903.	39	_		. 888
17.	1904	(Harris)	Washington, 1904.	39	-		844
18.	1905	(Harris)	Washington, 1905.	48			· 851
19.	1906	(Brown)	Washington, 1906.	42	_		862
20.	1007	(Brown)	Washington, 1907.	18	-		878

# II.—ANNUAL REPORTS.

21. 1867-68 (Barnard) Washington, 1868. xl, 865 p.

Official circulars and documents are appended to a few copies of this report and not to the entire edition. The report without the circulars was also printed as 40th Cong., 2d session. House ex. doc. 299.

Separates.

22. \*Circular.

CONTENTS: [Plan of monthly circular.]—Education, a national interest: memorial of state and city superintendents of schools.—An act to establish a department of education.—Schedule of information sought by the Commissioner. (Official circular no. 1.)

The serial number precedes each entry; the publication number (in heavy-faced type) follows the entry. Publications should be ordered by publication number. Starred publications (\*) are not found in the library of the Bureau.



1

1-1

	Separates, 1867–68—Continued.	
23.	*Circular respecting plan of publication.	1-6
	CONTENTS: [Plan of publication.]—The American journal of education, documentary history.—Classified index to Barnard's American journal of education V. 1-16.—Education, a national interest: 1. Historical development; 2. Speech of James A. Garfield on a bill "To establish a national Bureau of education." (Official circular no. 2.)	
24.	[Educational land policy of the United States,] August 1867,	1-8
	78 p. (Official circular no. 3.)	
	Varies slightly from the original.	
25,	[Constitutional provision respecting education in each state,]	1-4
	79-124 p. (Official circular 4-5.)	
<del>-</del> .	Same. Supplement 125–136 p.	
26.	*[National land grants for educational purposes. Supplement.] State colleges and schools of science applied to agriculture and the mechanic arts. 129-310 p. (Official circular no. 6.)	1–5
27.	*The state and education and systems of public instruc- tion. 311-368 p. (Official circular no. 7.)	1-6
28.	Education of girls. 369-400 p. (Official circular no. 8.)	1-7
<del>-</del> .	Report on female education. 367–384 p. (Official circular no. 8.)	
29.	Circular respecting academies and other institutions of secondary education. 401-432 p. (Official circular no. 9.)	1-8
30.	[*Academies and secondary education; secondary education in Prussia.] 433-522 p. (Official circular no. 10.)	1-9
31.	*School architecture. Part II. Plans for graded schools 1868. 513-648 p. (Official circular no. 11.)	104
	Report on school architecture and plans for graded schools; by the Commissioner of education. Washington, 1870. 513-648 p. (Official circular no. 11.)	
<b></b>	Same. Washington, 1871. 513–648 p. (Official circular no. 11.)	
32.	[*State normal schools, and other institutions for the pro- fessional training of teachers.] 649–820 p. (Official circular no. 12.)	1–10
33.	*August, 1868. 8, ix-lx p.  CONTENTS: Letter to editors and publishers of newspapers.— Educational meetings in August, 1868.—Plan of publication adopted by the Commissioner.—Circular respecting reports and documents for 1868.—Contents of special report on public schools in the District of Columbia and the principal cities of the U. S.—Index to subjects discussed in general report and documents.—Report of Commissioner of education, 1867-68, etc. (Official circular no. 13.)	1–11
34.	What is education? Opinions of eminent men. Washington, 1870. 16 p.	1–12
35.	1869 No report issued. 1870 (Eaton) Washington, 1870. 579 p.	8
ω.	Printed also as 41st Cong. 3d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 4.	U
36.	1871 (Eaton) Washington, 1872. 715 p.	4
•••	AUTA TAMOTOM J TEMBERSHIPHUM, AUTHO 140 Po	-

Printed also as 42d Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.

	Separate, 1871.	
37.	Report on the national schools of science; by D. C. Gilman. Washington, 1872. 20 p.	814
38.	1872 (Eaton) Washington, 1873. lxxxviii, 1018 p.	5
•••	Printed also as 42d Cong. 3d sess. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	•
<b>39</b> .	1873 (Eaton) Washington, 1875. clxxviii, 870 p. Printed also as 43d Cong. 1st sess. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	•
40.	1874 (Eaton) Washington, 1875. clii, 935 p.	7
	Printed also as 43d Cong. 2d sess. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	•
41.	1875 (Eaton) Washington, 1876. clxxiii, 1016 p.	8
	Printed also as 44th Cong. 1st sess. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
42.	1876 (Eaton) Washington, 1878. cexiii, 942 p.	9
	Printed also as 44th Cong. 2d sess. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5,	
	Separates,	
<b>43</b> .	The study of Anglo-Saxon by F. A. March. Washington, 1876? 475-579 p.  Cover-title.	320
44.	Latin pronunciation; by W. G. Richardson. Washington, 1876? 484-497 p.  Cover-title.	321
45.	The pronunciation of Greek in this country; by James R. Bolse. Washington, 1876? 480-483 p. Cover-title.	822
46.	1877 (Eaton) Washington, 1879. eevi, 644 p.	10
	Printed also as 45th Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
47.	1878 (Eaton) Washington, 1880. ccl, 730 p.	11
	Printed also as 45th Cong. 3d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
48.	1879 (Eaton) Washington, 1881. ccxxx, 757 p.	12
	Printed also as 46th Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
<b>49.</b>	1880 (Eaton) Washington, 1882. celxii, 914 p.	18
50.	Printed also as 46th Cong. 3d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.  1881 (Eaton) Washington, 1883. cclxxvii, 840 p.	14
ω.	Printed also as 47th Cong. 1st session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	14
51.	1882-83 (Eaton) Washington, 1884. eexciii, 872 p.	15
	Printed also as 47th Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
<b>52</b> .	1883-84 (Eaton) Washington, 1885. cclxxi, 943 p.	16
	Printed also as 48th Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
<b>53</b> .	1884-85 (Eaton) Washington, 1886. cexvii, 848.	17
	Printed also as 49th Cong. 1st session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
	Separate.	
54.	Statistics of public libraries in the United States.	148
	Washington, 1886. ccxxix-ccxxx, 691-782 p.	
<b>55.</b>	1885-86 (Dawson) Washington, 1887. xxi, 792 p.	18
	Printed also as 49th Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
56.	1886-87 (Dawson) Washington, 1888. 1170 p.	18
	Printed also as 50th Cong. 1st session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
57.	1887-88 (Dawson) Washington, 1889, 1209 p.	20
	Printed also as 50th Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	

58. —.	1888-89 (Harris) Washington, 1891. V. 1, ix., 669 p. Same. V. 2, vi, 67-1669 p. Printed also as 51st Cong. 1st session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	181 182
	Separates.	
59.	Part I of the Report of the Commissioner of education for the year 1888-89 with the Commissioner's introduction and table of contents of Parts I, II, III. Special edition. Washington, 1891. lix, 274 p.	188
<b>60.</b>	Chapter 24. Report of the general agent of education in Alaska for the year 1888-89; [by] Sheldon Jackson. Washington, 1891, 753-764 p. Cover-title.	184
61.	Chapter 35. Publications of the United States Bureau of education from 1867 to 1890 with subject-index. Wash- ington, 1891. 1453–1551 p.	185
62.	1889-90 (Harris) Washington, 1893. V. 1, xxvii, 601 p.	198
	Same. V. 2, vii, 603–1724 p.	199
	Printed also as 51st Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5. Separates.	
63.	V. 2, Chapter 17. Education in Alaska, 1889–90; [by] Sheldon Jackson. 1245–1300 p.	191
64.	1890-91 (Harris) Washington, 1894. V. 1, xxx, 654 p.	207
<b>—.</b>	Same. V. 2, 655–1549 p.	208
	Printed also as 52d Cong. 1st session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5. Separates.	
65.	Chapters 1-4. Report on legal education, prepared by a committee of the American bar association and the U. S. Bureau of education. Washington, 1893. 207 p.  Advance sheets of Chapters 13-16 of Annual report 1890-01, p. 376-578.	190
66.	Chapter 24. Education in southwestern Virginia, 1890-91; by A. D. Mayo. Washington, 1894. 881-921 p.	206
67.	Chapter 25. Education in Alaska, 1890–91; [by] Sheldon Jackson. Washington, 1893. 923–960 p.	208
68.	1891-92 (Harris) Washington, 1894. V. 1, xxviii, 636 p.	211
<b>—.</b>	Same. V. 2, v, 637–1294 p.	212
	Printed also as 52d Cong. 2d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5. Separates.	
69.	*Chapter 4. Classification in graded schools. 1892.	240
70.	Chapter 28. Education in Alaska, 1891-92; [by] Sheldon Jackson, Washington, 1894, 873-892 p.	214
71.	1892-93. (Harris) Washington, 1895. V. 1, lx., 1224 p.	217
<u>—</u> .	Same. V. 2, v, 1225–2153 p. Printed also as 53d Cong. 2d sess. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	218
	Separates.	
72.	Part II, Chapters 1–8. Education at the World's Columbian exposition, including reports and comments by American and foreign educators and delegates. Washington, 1896. 423–690 p.	228
<b>7</b> 3.	Part II, Chapter 9. Papers prepared for the World's library congress held at the Columbian exposition; ed. by Melvil Dewey. Washington, 1896. 691-1014 p.	224
74.	Part II, Chapter 10. Notes on education at the Columbian exposition; by John Eaton. Washington, 1896. 1015—1224 p.	225

	•	
	Separates, 1892-93—Continued.	
75.	Part III, Chapter 9. Education in Alaska, 1892-93; [by]	220
	Sheldon Jackson. Washington, 1895. 1705-1748 p.	
	Cover-title.	
76.	1893-94 (Harris) Washington, 1896. V. 1, xlvii, 1061 p.	221
<b>—.</b>	Same. V. 2, 1063-2290 p.	222
	Printed also as 53d Cong. 3d session. House ex. doc. 1, pt. 5.	
77.	*Chapter 9. Digest of the laws regulating the administra-	281
• • •	tion, character and finances of the public school systems	201
	of the states of the Union. By Wellford Addis. 1898.	
78.	Chapter 15. Educational values; [by W. T. Harris.] Wash-	250
	ington, 1904. 617-638 p.	
	Cover-title.	
79.	Part II, Chapter 12. Education in Alaska, 1893-94; [by]	221-1
•••	Sheldon Jackson. Washington, 1896. 1451-1492 p.	
80.	Part II, Chapter 13. Preliminary list of American learned	221-2
	and educational societies; by Stephen B. Weeks. Wash-	
	ington, 1896. 1493–1661 p.	
	Cover-title.	
<b>81.</b>	Part II, Chapters 14-15. Education and patho-social	220
	studies. Washington, 1896. 1663-1699, 573-590 p.	
	[Includes also Chapter 18, from Report for 1889-90.]	
<b>82.</b>	1894-95 (Harris) Washington, 1896. V. 1, lvii, 1152 p.	227
<del>-</del> .	Same. V. 2, v, 1153-2314 p.	228
	Printed also as 54th Cong. 1st session. House ex. doc. 5.  Separates.	
83.	Public high schools and private secondary schools in the	227-1
	United States. Washington, 1896, 19-105, 1890-2113 p.	
84.	Chapter 10. Education in central Europe. Washington,	227-2
	1896. 321–473 p.	
<b>35.</b>	Chapters 19-21. Chautauqua; [by Herbert B. Adams.] Pen-	227-8
	sions for teachers. Coeducation, compulsory attendance,	
	American students in foreign universities, continuation	
96.	and industrial schools. Washington, 1896. 977-1125 p. Chapter 33. Education in Alaska, 1894-95; [by] Sheldon	281
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	Separates, 1895-96 - Continued.	
<b>288</b> _21	109. Chapter 33. Educational matters of interest in various states. Washington, 1907. 1425–1433 p. Cover-title.	10
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28 <b>8-</b> 24	113. Chapter 37. Statistics of secondary schools. Washington, 1897. 1555–1865 p. Cover-title.	11
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288–20	115. Chapter 39. Statistics of higher education in the United States. Washington, 1897. 1917–2020 p. Cover-title.	11
. 28 <b>8–</b> 21	116. Chapter 40. Statistics of professional and allied schools. Washington, 1897. 2021-2056 p. Cover-title.	11
, 28 <b>8–</b> 28	<ol> <li>Chapter 41. Statistics of commercial and business schools. Washington, 1897. 2059–2079 p. Cover-title.</li> </ol>	
, 28 <b>8–</b> 21	118. Chapter 42. Education of the colored race. Washington, 1897. 2081-2115 p.  Cover-title.	11
, 28 <b>8—</b> 80	119. Chapter 43. Statistics of schools for the defective classes. Washington, 1897. 2117-2137 p. Cover-title.	11
	120. Chapter 44. Statistics of reform schools. Elementary education in foreign countries. Washington, 1897. 2139–2151 p.  Cover-title.	12
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124.

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288-6	27. Chapter 5. Education in central Europe. Washington, 1898. 125-206 p.	12
990 7	Cover-title.  28. Chapter 6. Commercial education in Europe. Washing-	40
200-1	<ol> <li>Chapter 6. Commercial education in Europe. Washington, 1898. 207-231 p.</li> <li>Cover-title.</li> </ol>	12
288-8	<ol> <li>Chapter 7. Teaching of civics in Switzerland, France, and England. Washington, 1898. 233-266 p.</li> <li>Cover-title.</li> </ol>	12
288-9	30. Chapter 8. Education in Greece; [by Daniel Quinn.] Washington, 1898. 267-347 p. Cover-title.	13
288-10	31. Chapter 9. Sunday schools; [by James H. Blodgett.] Washington, 1898. 349-425 p. Cover-title.	13
<b>288</b> –11	32. Chapter 10. The curriculum of the land-grant colleges; [compiled by Wellford Addis.] Washington, 1898. 427-456 p. Cover-title.	13
288-12	133. Chapter 11. College admission requirements. Washington, 1898. 457-613 p.  Cover-title.	18
288-18	<ol> <li>Chapter 13. Psychological tendencies; the study of imitation. Washington, 1898. 671-694 p.</li> <li>Cover-title.</li> </ol>	13
288-14	35. Chapter 14. Discussion of educational topics; by President Francis A. Walker, of the Massachusetts institute of technology, with some account of his life. Washington, 1898. 695-714 p.  Caption-title.	13
288-15	36. Chapter 16. Henry Barnard; by A. D. Mayo. Washington, 1898. 769–810 p.  Cover-title.	13
<b>288</b> –16	37. Chapter 18. Entrance requirements for engineering colleges. Washington, 1898. 891–898 p.  Cover-title.	13
<b>238</b> –17	38. Chapter 19. Early history of the kindergarten in St. Louis, Missouri. Washington, 1898. 899–922 p.  Cover-title.	13
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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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   Washington, 1898. 1773-1817 p.
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	Separates, 1896-97—Continued.	
156.	Chapter 39. Statistics of normal schools. Washington, 1898. 1819–1871 p. Cover-title	288-84
157.	Chapter 40. Statistics of secondary schools. Washington, 1898. 1873–2166 p.  Cover-title.	288-85
158.		288 <del>-8</del> 6
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160.	Chapter 43. Manual and industrial training. Washington, 1898. 2279–2294 p.  Cover-title.	288 <b>–8</b> 8
161.	Washington, 1898. 2335–2355 p. Cover-title.	
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163.	1897-98 (Harris) Washington, 1899. V. 1, cxx, 1280 p. Same. V. 2, vil, 1281-2640 p. Printed also as 55th Cong. 3d sess. House doc. 5. Separates,	257 258
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167.	Chapter 2. Summer schools in England, Scotland, France, and Switzerland; by Herbert B. Adams. Washington, 1899. 83–131 p.  Cover-title.	<b>257-4</b>
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169.	Chapter 4. Education in Canada; by Anna Tolman Smith. Washington, 1899. 169–187 p. Cover-title.	257-6
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	1899. 189–214 p. Cover-title.	

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  Washington, 1899. 673-692 p.
  Cover-title.
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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Caption-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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1899. 1741-1751 p.
Cover-title.

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Senarates.	1897-98Continued.
DUDGIUSCO.	1001-00-Continued

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  1899. 2419-2440 p.
  Cover-title.
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- 208. Chapter 50. Education of the colored race. Washington, 257-44
  1899. 2479-2507 p.
  Cover-title.
- 209. Chapter 51. Statistics of schools for the defective classes, 257-45 Washington, 1899. 2509-2527 p. Cover-title.
- 210. Chapter 52. Statistics of reform schools. Washington, 257-46 1899. 2529-2535 p.
  Cover-title.
- 211. Chapter 53. Public and private kindergartens. Washington, 257-47 1899. 2537-2579 p. Cover-title.
- Chapter 54. Necrology of 1897. Washington, 1899. 2581- 257-48
   2611 p.
   Cover-title.
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260-8	Separates, 1898-99—Continued.  Chapter 2. Education in Australasia. Washington, 1900.	217.
	67–87 p.	
260-4	Cover-title.  Chapter 3. Education in Belgium. Washington, 1900.	218.
	89–123 p.	
900 2	Cover-title.	010
200-0	Chapter 4. Education in central Europe. Washington, 1900. 125–235 p. Cover-title.	219.
260-6	Chapter 5. Education in Sweden. Washington, 1900. 237-	220.
	257 p.	
	Cover-title.	
260-7	Chapter 6. State education in Japan; [by Robert E. Lewis.] Washington, 1900. 259–302 p. Cover-title.	221.
268	Chapter 7. Classification and promotion of pupils. Wash-	222.
200	ington, 1900. 303-356 p.  Cover-title.	e.
260_8	Chapter 8. The development of the common school in the	223.
	western states from 1830 to 1865; [by A. D. Mayo.]	
	Washington, 1900. 357-450 p.	
	Caption-title.	
	Chapter 9. The Royal normal college for the blind, London,	224.
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960	Cover-title.	000
269	Chapter 11. Miscellaneous educational topics. Washington, 1900. 479–685 p.  Cover-title.	226.
260-11	Chapter 12. The study of art and literature in schools;	227.
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	Cover-title.	
260-12	Chapter 13. The Western literary institute and college of professional teachers; [by B. A. Hinsdale and Mary L.	228.
	Hinsdale.] Washington, 1900. 707-745 p.	
	Cover-title.	
260-18	Chapter 14. The United States Naval academy at An-	229.
	napolis, its organization and methods of training; by	
	Edward S. Holden. Washington, 1900. 747-780 p.	
980_1 <i>4</i>	Caption-title.	230.
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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
- 241. Chapter 28. Education and crime. Washington, 1900. **260–25**1249–1343 p.
  Cover-title.
- 242. Chapter 29. Education in Canada. Washington, 1900. **260–26**1345–1365 p.
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  Cover-title.
- 246. Chapter 34. List of foreign universities. Washington, **260–29**1900. 1459–1473 p.
  Cover-title.

Be <sub>1</sub>	parates, 1898–99–	-Continued.	•			
247.	Chapter 35. 1490 p.	Current questions.	Washington,	1900.	1475-	2 <b>60-<del>8</del>0</b>
	• Capt	ion-title.				
	Con	rents : Teachers' sala	ries in cities.—	-Teachers	pen-	

CONTENTS: Teachers' salaries in cities.—Teachers' pensions and annuities.—The teaching force in England and Wales.—Foreign students in German universities.—Women students in Prussian universities.—Causes of mortality among teachers.—A new history of education.

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  Cover-title.
- 249. Chapter 37. Institutions for higher education. Washing- 269-32 ton, 1900. 1559-1674 p.

  Cover-title.
- 250. Chapter 38. Statistics of professional and allied schools. 278
  Washington, 1900. 1675–1735 p.
  Cover-title.
- 251. Chapter 39. Agricultural and mechanical colleges. Wash- 260-88 ington, 1900. 1737-1788 p.

  Cover-title.
- 252. Chapter 40. Statistics of normal schools. Washington, 260-34
  1900. 1789-1842 p.
  Cover-title.
- 253. Chapter 42. Manual and industrial training. Washington, 260–35 1900. 2139–2162 p. Cover-title.
- 254. Chapter 44. Education of the colored race. Washington, 260–36 1900. 2201–2225 p.

  Cover-title.
- 255. Chapter 45. Statistics of reform schools, Washington, 260-87 1900. 2227-2233 p.

  Cover-title.
- 256. Chapter 46. Statistics of schools for the defective classes, 260–38 Washington, 1900. 2235–2255 p.
  Cover-title.
- 257. Chapter 47. Statistics of public kindergartens. Washington, 260–89 1900. 2257–2262 p. Cover-title.
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Separates, 1899-1900.

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275-9

Cover-title.

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275**-8** 

Caption-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Caption-title.

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Caption-title.

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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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  1901. 2067–2117 p.
  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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  1901. 2501-2531 p.
  Cover-title.
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  1901. 2533-2539 p.
  Cover-title.
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  1901. 2541–2562 p.
  Cover-title.
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  —. Same. V. 2, vii, 1217-2512 p. 288

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319.

Sej	parates, 1900–1901.	
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306.	Chapter 2. A legislative history of the public school system of Ohio; [comp. by Mary L. Hinsdale.] Washington, 1902. 129–159 p.  Cover-title.	287-2
307.	Chapter 5. Educational pathology or self-government in schools. Washington, 1902. 235-262 p.  Cover-title.	287—8
308.	Chapter 6. International association for the advancement of science, arts, and education; [by Patrick Geddes.] Washington, 1902. 263–304 p.  Cover-title.	<b>287-4</b>
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311.	Chapter 9. Inhibition. Washington, 1902. 345-356 p. Cover-title.	287-7
312.	Chapter 12. Letter as to establishment of a normal school in Virginia; by E. S. Joynes. Washington, 1902. 491–507 p.  Cover-title.	287-8
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316.	Chapter 17. Notices of some early English writers on education; with descriptions, extracts, and notes by Foster Watson. Washington, 1902. 861-884 p.  Caption-title.	287-12
317.	Chapter 18. Third annual conference of the Association of Catholic colleges. Washington, 1902. 885–938 p.  Cover-title.	287–18
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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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1081–1136 p.
Cover-title.

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1902. 1137–1182 p.
Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Washington, 1902. 1217-1315 p.
Cover-title.

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Caption-title.

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1441-1457 p.
Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Caption-title.

Chapter 33. Consular reports. Washington, 1902. 1499– 287–28
 p.
 Cover-title.

332. Chapter 34. City school systems. Washington, 1902. 1527- 287-29
1610 p.
Cover-title.

338. Chapter 37. Agricultural and mechanical colleges. Wash- 287–80 ington, 1902. 1801–1841 p.
Cover-title.

334. Chapter 38. Statistics of normal schools. Washington, 287-31
1902. 1843-1901 p.
Cover-title.

335. Chapter 39. Statistics of secondary schools. Washington, 29f
1902. 1903–2230 p.

	•	
287-82	Separates, 1900-1901—Continued.  Chapter 40. Manual and industrial training. Washington,	336
	1902. 2231-2268 p.	
287-88	Cover-title.  Chapter 41. Commercial and business schools. Washington, 1902. 2269–2297 p.	337.
	Cover-title.	
287-84	. Chapter 42. Education of the colored race. Washington, 1902. 2299–2331 p.  Cover-title.	<b>33</b> 8.
287-85		<b>33</b> 9
<b>2</b> 87 <b>–86</b>		340
287-87		341
829	. 1902 (Harris) Washington, 1903. V. 1, exil, 1176 p.	342
880	Same. V. 2, vii, 1177–2447 p. Printed also as 57th Cong. 2d sess. House doc. 5.	—,
	Separates.	
<b>829–</b> 1	The Commissioner's introductory statement with statistics of state school systems. Washington, 1903. ix-cxii. p. Cover-title.	<b>34</b> 3
<b>829–</b> 2		344
829-8	. Chapter 2. Franklin's influence in American education; by Francis Newton Thorpe. Washington, 1903. 91–190 p.	345
<b>829</b> —4		346
		347
	- · ·	348
829-7		349
829-8	Chapter 7. Necrology for 1899, 1900, and 1901. Washington, 1903. 339-422 p.	350

Separates, 1902—Continued.

351. Chapter 8. Education in Canada. Washington, 1903. 423— **\$29—9**463 p.

Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

CONTENTS: I. Progress of public education in Italy; by Tullio de Suzzara-Verdi.—II. The Bacelli bill for the reform of higher education in Italy; by Alexander Oldrini.

- 381. Chapter 18. Illiteracy of the voting population in the **329-19**United States. Washington, 1903. 789-818 p.
  Cover-title.
- 362. Chapter 19. Foreign universities. Washington, 1903. 819- **829-20** 836 p.

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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.

381.

**382.** 

øυ	LIST OF PUBLICATIONS.
Sep <b>366.</b>	crates, 1902—Continued.  Chapter 23. Length of the college course. Washington, \$29-2-1903. 927-948 p.
367.	Cover-title.  Chapter 24. Oxford university. Washington, 1903. 949-829-8.  999 p.
368.	Cover-title.  Chapter 25. Education in Great Britain and Ireland. \$29-20  Washington 1903. 1001-1068 p.  Cover-title.
369.	Chapter 26. Correspondence schools. Washington, 1903. \$29-2 1069-1094 p. Cover-title.
370.	Chapter 27. Child study in Chicago. Washington, 1903. <b>829-2</b> : 1005-1138 p.  Cover-title.
371.	Chapter 28. Education in Russia; [by E. Kovalevsky.] \$29-25 Washington, 1903. 1139-1146 p. Cover-title.
372.	Chapter 29. Educational periodicals. Washington, 1903. <b>829-8</b> 1147-1150 p.  Cover-title.
373.	Chapter 30. Educational directory. Washington, 1903. 829-8: 1151-1176 p.  Cover-title.
374.	Chapter 31. Education in Porto Rico. Washington, 1903. <b>\$29-\$</b> : 1177-1227 p.  Cover-title.
375.	Chapter 34. Statistics of city school systems. Washington, <b>829-8</b> 1 1903. 1271-1346 p. Caption-title.
376.	Chapter 36. Professional schools. Washington, 1903. <b>329-3</b> 9. 1499-1549 p.  Cover-title.
<b>377.</b>	Chapter 37. Agricultural and mechanical colleges. Wash- \$29-\$4 ington, 1903. 1551-1579 p.  Cover-title.
378.	Chapter 38. Statistics of normal schools. Washington, \$29-\$6 1903. 1581-1639 p.  Cover-title.
379.	Chapter 41. Commercial and business schools. Washing- \$29-\$ ton, 1903. 2003-2041 p.  Cover-title.
380.	Chapter 42. Schools for nurses. Washington, 1903. 2043—829—8: 2061 p.  Cover-title.

Chapter 43. Education of the colored race. Washington, \$29-89

Chapter 44. Statistics of reform schools. Washington, 829-40

1903. 2063-2095 р. Cover-title.

1903. 2097-2114 p. Cover-title.

	Separates, 1902—Continued.	
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384.	Chapter 49. Report on school statistics; made by a committee of the Department of superintendence of the National educational association. Washington, 1903. 2209–2218 p.  Cover-title.	9-12
385.	Chapter 50. Education in the Philippines. Washington, \$2 1903. 2219–2271 p.  Cover-title.	9-48
386.	Chapter 51. Statistics of public and private kindergartens. 32 Washington, 1903. 2273-2309 p.  Cover-title.	9-44
387.	Chapter 52. Illiteracy in the United States. Washington, \$2 1903. 2311-2346 p.  Cover-title.	9-45
388.	Chapter 53. Current topics. Washington, 1903. 2347- <b>82</b> 2422 p.  Cover-title.	9-46
389.	1903 (Harris) Washington, 1905. V. l, cxii, 1216 p.	<b>84</b> 1
—.	Same. V. 2, viii, 1217-2512 p.	842
	Printed also as 58th Cong. 2d sess. House doc. 5.	
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392.	Chapter 2. General laws relating to agricultural and mechanical land-grant colleges. Washington, 1904. 39—226 p.  Cover-title.	41-8
393.		41-4
394.	Chapter 4. Education in London under the administration of the London school board. Washington, 1904. 273–292 p.  Cover-title.	41–5
895.	_	41-6
	Washington, 1904. 293-317 p. Cover-title.	
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<b>397.</b>	_	41–8

Separates, 1903-Continued.

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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.

CONTENTS: I. Proceedings of the trustees of the Peabody fund.—11. Eulogium of Dr. J. L. M. Curry; by E. A. Alderman.—III. Services of Doctor Curry in connection with the Peabody fund; by A. D. Mayo.—IV. Education in the southern states; by J. L. M. Curry.

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  Cover-title.
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Cover-title.

Cover-title.

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  Cover-title.
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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Cover-title.

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Caption-title.

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Caption-title.

CONTENTS: Emerson E. White.—Alice Freeman Palmer.—Frank A. Hill.—Charles Ammi Cutter.—William E. Dodge.—Josiah Willard Gibbs.

422. Chapter 32. Statistics of city school systems. Washington, **841-88** 1904. 1391-1502 p.
Caption-title.

43488--08----3

423.	Separates, 1903—Continued.  Chapter 33. Universities, colleges, and technological schools. Washington, 1904. 1503–1625 p.  Cover-title.	841-84
—.	Same. Washington, 1905. 1503–1625 p. Cover-title.	841
424.		841-8
425.	Chapter 35. Professional instruction. Washington, 1904. 1673-1751 p.  Cover-title.	841-80
426.	Chapter 36. Statistics of normal schools. Washington, 1904. 1753–1811 p.  Cover-title.	841-8
427.	Chapter 37. Statistics of secondary schools. Washington, 1904. 1813-2137 p.	841-8
	Same. Washington, 1905. 1813–2137 p. Cover-title.	850
428.	Chapter 38. Manual and industrial training. Washington, 1904. 2139-2190 p.  Cover-title.	841-8
429.	Chapter 39. Commercial and business schools. Washington, 1904. 2191–2227 p.  Cover-title.	841-40
430.	Chapter 40. Schools for nurses. Washington, 1904. 2229- 2251 p. Cover-title.	84
431.	Chapter 41. Schools for the colored race. Washington, 1904. 2253-2285 p.  Cover-title.	841-4
432	Chapter 42. Reform schools. Washington, 1904. 2287-2303 p.  Cover-title.	841-49
433.	Chapter 43. Schools for the defective classes. Washington, 1904. 2305-2332 p.  Cover-title.	841-48
434.	Chapter 44. Report on education in Alaska; by Sheldon Jackson. Washington, 1904. 2333-2364 p.  Cover-title.	841-4
435.	Chapter 45. Introduction of domestic reindeer into Alaska; by Sheldon Jackson. Washington, 1904. 2365–2384 p.  Cover-title.	841-4
436	Chapter 46. Education in the Philippines, Hawaii, and Cuba. Washington, 1904. 2385-2395 p.  Cover-title.	841-40
437	Chapter 47. Current topics. Washington, 1904. 2397-2479 p.	841-4

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440.	Chapter 1. Education in Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Washington, 1905. 23 p.  Cover-title.	<b>856</b> –2
441.	Chapter 2. Statistics of growth; [by Franz Boas and Clark Wissler.] Washington, 1905. 25–132 p.  Cover-title.	856-8
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443.	Chapter 6. The work and influence of Hampton. Washington, 1905. 559-579 p.  Cover-title.	<b>356</b> –5
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446.	Chapter 9. Juvenile criminality in Germany; [by Edgar Loening]. Washington, 1905. 703-713 p.  Cover-title.	<b>856–</b> 8
447.	Chapter 10. Grammar and vocabulary of the Hlingit lan- guage of southeastern Alaska; [by William A. Kelly and Frances H. Willard.] Washington, 1905. 715–766 p. Cover-title.	<b>356–9</b>
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449.	Chapter 12. Education in Great Britain and Ireland, 1903. Washington, 1905. 799-832 p. Cover-title.	<b>856</b> —11
450.	Chapter 13: Higher education in England as affected by the law of 1902. Washington, 1905. 833-861 p. Cover-title.	<b>856</b> —12
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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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  Cover-title.
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  Caption-title.
- 462. Chapter 25. Universities, colleges, and technological schools. **856–24**Washington, 1905. 1417–1543 p.
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- 463. Chapter 26. Agricultural and mechanical colleges. Wash- 356-25 ington, 1905. 1545-1586 p.
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- 464. Chapter 27. Professional education. Washington, 1905. **356-26**1587-1665 p.
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- 466. Chapter 29. Statistics of secondary schools. Washington, 856–28 1905. 1727–2055 p. Cover-title.

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494.

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## III.—CIRCULARS OF INFORMATION.ª

528.	1870 August. Illiteracy, derived from census tables of 1860; Educational statistics, translation from an article by Dr. A. Ficker; School-room diseases, translation from an article by Dr. R. Virchow; Education of French and Prussian conscripts; School organization, etc. Washington, 1870. 70 p. [Supplied-title.]	21
529.	1871 July. Report on the systems of public instruction in Sweden [by C. C. Andrews], and Norway [by Gerhard Gade.] Washington, 1871. 48 p.	.22
530.	1871 November. Methods of school discipline; [by Hiram Orcutt] Washington, 1871. 14 p.	28
	The discipline of the school; [by Hiram Orcutt], Washington, 1881 15 p. Cover-title.	125
531.	1871 December. Compulsory education; [by L. Van Bokkelen.] Washington, 1872. 17 p.	24
532.	1872 January. German and other foreign universities; [by Herman Jacobson.] Washington, 1872. 43 p.	25
533.	1872 February. Reports on the systems of public instruction in Greece [by John M. France]; The Argentine Republic; Chili, and Ecuador; with statistics of Portugal and Japan, and an official report on technical education in Italy. Washington, 1872. 77 p.	26
534.	1872 March. 1. An inquiry concerning the vital statistics of college graduates; [by Charles Warren.] 2. Distribution of college students in 1870-71; [by Charles Warren.] 3. Facts of vital statistics in the United States with tables and diagrams; [by J. M. Toner.] Washington, 1872. 93 p.	27
<b>535.</b>	1872 April. The relation of education to labor. Washington, 1872. 125 p.	28
<b>53</b> 6.	1872 June. Education in the British West Indies; [by Thomas H. Pearne.] Washington, 1872. 22 p.	29
537.	1872 July. The kindergarten. Washington, 1872. 62 p.  CONTENTS: Kindergarten in Italy; by Elizabeth P. Peabody.—The philosophy and methods of the kindergarten; by Baroness Marenholts Bulow.—Kindergarten in Belgium, introduction to practical treatise on kindergarten; by Octavie Masson.	80
<b>538.</b>	1872 November. American education at the International exposition to be held at Vienna in 1873. 79 p.	81
539.	1873 no. 1. Historical summary and reports on the systems of public instruction in Spain, Bolivia, Uruguay, and Portugal. Washington, 1873. 66 p.	82
540.	1873 no. 2. Schools in British India; [by Joseph Warren]. Washington, 1873. 30 p.	88
541.	1873 no. 3. Account of college commencements for the summer of 1873, in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. Washington, 1873. 118 p.	84

<sup>•</sup> Official circulars 1-13 were published as reprints of the Annual report for 1867-68.



542.	1873 no. 4. List of publications by members of certain college-faculties and learned societies in the United States, 1867-1872. Washington, 1873. 72 p.	85
543.	1873 no. 5. Account of college-commencements during 1873 in the western and southern states. Washington, 1873. 155 p.	36
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545.	1874 no. 2. Drawing in public schools. The present relation of art to education in the United States; [by I. Edwards Clarke.] Washington, 1874. 56 p.	<b>\$8</b>
546.	1874 no. 3. History of secondary instruction in Germany; [completed by Herman Jacobson.] Washington, 1874. 87 p.	89
547.	1875 no. 1. Proceedings of the Department of superintendence of the National educational association, at Washington, D. C., January 27 and 28, 1875. Washington, 1875. 114 p.	40
<b>548.</b>	Education at the Centennial. Washington, 1875. 27 p. Cover-title.	40–1
<b>549.</b>	1875 no. 2. Education in Japan. Washington, 1875. 64 p.	41
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561.	1879 no. 2. Papers, addresses, discussions, and other proceedings of the Department of superintendence of the National educational association, at the meeting held at Washington, D. C., February 4, 5, and 6, 1879; the proceedings of the Department of superintendence of the National educational association for 1877; and the proceedings of the Conference of the presidents and other delegates of the state universities and state colleges of Ohio for 1877. Washington, 1879. 192 p.	58
562.	An address on the needs of the Bureau of education; by John Eaton. Washington, 1879. 7 p.	808
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<b>564.</b>	An address on technical education and industrial drawing; by Walter Smith. Washington, 1879. 24 p.	818
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566.	An address on education at the Paris exposition; by John D. Philbrick. Washington, 1879. 9 p.	828
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<del></del> .	Additions to the teaching, practice, and literature of shorthand; [by Julius Ensign Rockwell.] Washington, 1885. 159–182 p.	81–1
597.	1884 no. 3. Illiteracy in the United States in 1870 and 1880, with diagrams and observations; by Charles Warren; with an appendix on national aid to education; by J. L. M. Curry. Washington, 1884. 99 p.	82
5 <u>9</u> 8.	1884 no. 4. Proceedings of the Department of superintendence of the National educational association at its meeting at Washington, February 12–14, 1884. Washington, 1884. 176 p.	88

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599.	Address on arbor day in the public schools; by J. B. Peaslee.  Washington, 1884. 14 p.	88–1
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	South; by Robert Bingham. Washington, 1884. 21 p.	
601.	1884 no. 5. Suggestions respecting the educational exhibit at the World's industrial and cotton centennial exposition. Washington, 1884. 28 p.	84
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613.		96
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617.	1	100



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<b>65</b> 0.	1898 no. 1. The history of education in Louisiana; by Edwin Whitfield Fay. Washington, 1898. 264 p. (Contributions to American educational history, no. 20.)	242
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<b>65</b> 6.	American educational history, no. 25.)  1900 no. 1. History of education in Arkansas; by Josiah H.  Shinn. Washington, 1900. 121 p. (Contributions to American educational history, no. 26.)	262
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660.		280
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861

262

267

268

879

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	First edition incomplete, printed pursuant to a call of House of Representatives, January 19, 1870. 2d edition, enlarged, was published as V. 21 of Barnard's American journal of education.	
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<b>67</b> 6.		815
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683.	-	819
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686.	•	108
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<b>690.</b>	·	122
691.		162

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	Separates—Continued.	
<b>69</b> 2.	Rules for a dictionary catalogue; by Charles A. Cutter. 3d ed. with corrections and additions and an alphabetical index. Washington, 1891. 140 p.	172
693.		840
694.		111
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710.	10 p.	126
711.	Washington, 1882. 4 p.	127
712.	Comparative statistics of elementary, secondary, and superior education in sixty principal countries. 1882.  (Folding-sheet.)	128
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	<b>.</b>	
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<b>729.</b>	International educational congress at Havre. Washington, 1885. 6 p.	142
730.		154
731.	Educational exhibits and conventions at the World's industrial	155
	and cotton centennial exposition, New Orleans, 1884-85. Washington, 1886. 3 v.	
	CONTENTS: Pt. I. Catalogue of exhibits.—Pt. II. Proceedings of the International congress of educators.—Pt. III. Proceedings of the Department of superintendence of the National educational association, and addresses delivered on Education days.	
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	Printed also as 48th Cong. 2d sess. Senate ex. doc. 95.	
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	ordered by the Senate, the other by the House.	
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743.		169
744.	Rules and regulations for the conduct of schools and education in the district of Alaska. Washington, 1890. 8 p.	166
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746.		881
747.		205
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749.		882
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751.		215
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753.		869

#### INDEX.

### [References are to serial numbers.]

Abnormal children, see Children, abnormalities Abnormal man (MacDonald) 643 Adams, H. B., Chautauqua, 85 College of William and Mary, 611 Educational extension in the United States, 267 Study of history in American colleges and universities, 612 Summer schools in England, Scotland, France, and Switzerland, 167 Thomas Jefferson and the University of Virginia, 614 University extension in Great Britain, 233 University extension in Great Britain, 253

Addis, Wellford, Advancement and improvement of agriculture in Europe, 103
Agricultural and mechanical colleges, 154, 202
Bertillon system for suppressing crime, 105
Colleges of agriculture and the mechanic arts, 104
Curriculum of the land-grant colleges, 132
Digest of the laws regulating the administration, character and finances of the public school systems of the states of the Union, 77
Federal and state aid to higher education, 142
Learned professions and social control, 144
Some recent contributions of biology, sociology and metallurgy to the curriculum of colleges, endowed by the federal government for the benefit of agriculture and the mechanic arts. 139 the mechanic arts, Admission to college on certificate of secondary schools, 355 Advancement and improvement of agriculture in Europe, 103 Aesthetic element in manual training (Goodnough) 106 Africa, see British South African colonies; Egypt; Liberia Agricultural and mechanical colleges, 37, 104, 154, 202, 251, 294, 333, 344, 377, 392, 424, 462, 498, 526; courses of study, 132, 139; establishment, 26; land grants, 26; Philadelphia International exhibition, 681 Agricultural education, 194, 671; Belgium, 482; France, 101, 482; Prussia, 101; United See also Agricultural and mechanical colleges Agricultural education in high schools, 420 Agriculture, Europe, 103 Aims and methods of the teaching of physics (Wead) 603 Alabama, education, 625 Alaska (Dawson) 620 Alaska, education, 60, 63, 67, 70, 75, 79, 86, 110, 152, 199, 244, 290, 329, 434, 472, 490, 520, 738, 744, 746; Eskimos, 627; Hlingit language, 447; reindeer, 200, 290, 330, 435, 454, 491, 520, 743, 751, 753 Alcohol physiology and superintendence (Atwater) 270 Alcoholism, 271
See also Temperance instruction Alderman, E. A., Eulogium of Dr. J. L. M. Curry, 401 Obligations and opportunities of scholarship, 270 Allen, W. F., Higher education in Wisconsin, 622 American bar association, Report on legal education, 65 American journal of education, documentary history, 23; index, 23, 745 American library association, Catalogue of a library of 5,000 volumes, 748 American school of classical studies at Athens, 725 American students in foreign universities, 85 Anatomy, museums, 730 Andrews, C. C., Report on the system of public instruction in Sweden, 529 Angio-Saxon language, 43 Anniversaries, educational, 686 Arbor day, 599, 728 See also Trees Architecture, school, see School architecture

Are the Indians dying out? 695

Argentine Republic, education, 184, 533; industrial education, 475

Arithmetic, text-books, 181, 230 Arkansas, education, 656 Aronstein, Dr. Ph., Development of English secondary schools for boys, 264 Art, industrial, 564, 588, 733, 734, 735, 736; study, 227 Art and education, 545 Art and industry, 455, 487, 783, 784, 735, 736 Art decorations in schoolrooms (Weeks) 107 Art education, 106, 452, 455, 487, 733, 734, 735, 786; relation to manual training, 106 Art education an important factor in industrial development (Ives) 487 Art education the true industrial education (Harris) 455 Artistic manual training, see Manual training Arts, advancement, 308 Association of Catholic colleges, 317 Atherton, G. W., Legislative career of Justin S. Morrill, 285 Athletics, see Olympic games of 1896 Atkinson, F. W., Present educational movement in the Philippine Islands, 327 Attendance, see School attendance Atwater, W. O., Alcohol physiology and superintendence, 270 Australasia, education, 217 Australia, education, 170, 440 Austria, commercial education, 93; industrial education, 102 Auxiliary schools, Germany, 672 Bacelli bill for the reform of higher education in Italy (Oldrini) 360 Baldwin, S. E., Readjustment of the collegiate to the professional course, 272 Barnard, Henry, 136, 365; commissioner of education, 21-34; American journal of education, documentary history, 23 Belgium, agricultural education, 482; education, 218, 550; freedom, 707; kindergarten, 537 Benefactors, educational, 419 Bennett, C. A., Relation of manual training and art education, 106 Bertillon system for suppressing crime (Addis) 105 Bible in the public schools and state universities, 193 Bible study in American colleges, 192 Bibliographies, A. L. A. library catalogue, 748; Bureau of education, publications, 61, 510; Confederate text-books, 236; criminology, 643; educational periodicals, 237, 281, 324, 372, 414, 456, 521; publications by members of certain college faculties and learned societies, 542 Bingham, Robert, Address on the educational status and needs of the new South, 600 Biology, 139; teaching, 637 Bird's-eye view of the St. Louis public school system in 1880 (Harris) 234 Blackmar, F. W., Higher education in Kansas, 657 History of federal and state aid to higher education in the United States, 626 Blind, education, 224 Blodgett, J. H., Legal provisions of the various states relating to teachers' examinations and certificates, 196 Sunday schools, 131 Boas, Frans, Growth of Statistics of growth, 441 Frans, Growth of Toronto children, 151 Boise, J. R., Pronunciation of Greek in this country, 45 Bolivia, education, 539 Bonn university, 587 Boykin, J. C., Class intervals in city public schools, 750 Laws relating to city school boards, 89 Statistics of city school systems, 205 Tennessee centennial and international exposition, 1 Typical institutions offering manual and industrial training, 98 Boys, education, 264 Brazil, education, 184 British India, education, 268, 516, 540 British royal commissioners on technical instruction, 606 British South African colonies, education, 352 British West Indies, education, 536 Brooks, C. P., International congress on technical education, 174 Report on the European textile schools, 178 Brown, E. E., Commissioner of education, 19-20, 508-527 Secondary education, 402 Bufalini prize, 719 Building for the children in the South (Mayo) 726 Buisson, Ferdinand, American education as described by the French commission to the International exhibition of 1876, 569
Education of the will, 359

Bülow, Baroness Marenholtz, Philosophy and methods of the kindergarten, 537

Bureau of education, 685, 789; annual report, 1867-68, index, 83; annual reports, plan of publication, 23; circulars, 22-23, 528-666; circulars, plan, 22; establishment, 22, 23, 740; exhibit, Louisiana purchase exposition, 413; history, 721; needs, 562; publications, 83, 510; publications, 1867-1890, index, 61; report on legal education, 65; schedule of statistics, 22; work, 721 Burgerstein, Leo, Means for spreading hygienic knowledge among the people, 172 Medical inspection of schools abroad, 354 Bush, G. G., First common schools of New England, 143
History of education in Florida, 621
History of education in New Hampshire, 652
History of education in Vermont, 659
History of higher education in Massachusetts, 634 Business education, see Commercial education Butler, N. M., Status of education at the close of the century, 270 What knowledge is of most worth? 106 Cajori, Florian, Teaching and history of mathematics in the United States, 628 Caldwell, H. W., Education in Nebraska, 662 Calhoun, A. W., Effects of student life upon the eyesight, 584 Campbell, Dr. F. J., 224 Campbell, J. P., Biological teaching in the colleges of the United States, 687 Canada, education, 169, 242, 351, 440 Carlisle Indian school, 700 Carnegie institution of Washington, D. C., 321 Cataloguing, 689, 691, 692, 693 See also Library science Catholic colleges, 317 Catholic parochial schools of the United States (Sheedy) 411 Causes of deafness among school children (Sexton) 583 Central America, education, 91 Certificates, teachers', see Teaching, certificates Chadbourne, P. A., Waste of labor in the work of education, 551 Changes in the age of college graduation (Thomas) 383 Charity schools, 558 Chautauqua (Adams) 85 Chemistry, teaching, 575 Chicago, World's Columbian exposition, education, 72, 74; World's library congress, 78 Child study, 183, 315; Chicago, 370 Children, abnormalities, 225; care, 702; deafness, 588; growth, 151, 188; statistics, 441; iegal rights, 572; restlessness, see Inhibition; study, 151, 183 Chile, education, 583 Chilian educational congress and exhibit, 417 Chilian international exposition, Santiago, education, 682 China, education, 489, 556, 703 Choate, Joseph, Education in America, 420 Church and education, 348 City school systems, 291, 882, 420, 604; St. Louis, 284; statistics, 112, 158, 205, 248, 875, 422, 461, 496, 524 See also Public schools Civics, 711; teaching, England, 129, France, 129, Switzerland, 129 Civilization, definition, 455 Clark, S. M., Public libraries in the United States of America, 689 Clark, T. M., Rural school architecture, 573 Clark, W. G., History of education in Alabama, 625 Clarke, F. W., Report on the teaching of chemistry and physics in the United States, 575 Clarke, I. E., Art and industry, 733, 734, 735, 736 Drawing in public schools, 545 Class intervals in city public schools (Boykin) 750 Classical education, 725 Coeducation, 85, 326, 410, 592

See also Women, education College libraries, 570 College woman (Pace) 475

Colleges and universities, 423, 462, 497, 525; age of graduation, 383; Bible study, 192, 193; biology, teaching, 637; commencements, Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Vermont, 541, southern states, western states, 543; degrees, 742; entrance requirements, 183, 355; faculty publications, 542; foreign, 108, 147, 198, 246, 828, 362, 405, 459, 475, 515, 532, American students, 85; Germany, 532, foreign students, 247, insurance, 442, pensions, 442; graduates, vital statistics, 534; history, study, 612; length of course, 366; Philadelphia international exhibition, 681; professional training, 272; Prussia, women students, 247; physical education, 608; statistics, United States, 676; students, distribution, 534; United States, 395, 458, 717

See also Degree-conferring institutions; Higher education; same of institution

Digitized by Google

Colorado, higher education, 664 Colored race, see Negroes; Southern states Commencements, college, see Colleges and universities, commencements Commercial education, 298, 323, 337, 379, 429, 468, 503; Austria, 93; Europe, 93, France, 93; Germany, 93, 483; Switzerland, 363; United States, 117, 159, 207, 483 Commissioner of education, Annual reports, 21–527; Annual statements, 1–20 Commons, J. R., History of higher education in Ohio, 633 Comparé, Gabriel, Higher and secondary education in the United States, 99 Compulsory education, 85, 531 Confederate text-books (Weeks) 236 Connecticut, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; education, 641 Conscripts, French and Prussian, 528 Constitutional provisions respecting education, 25, 554 Construction of library buildings (Poole) 577 Consular reports on education, 149, 195, 245, 288, 331, 364, 404 Continuation schools, 85, 670 Conventions, educational, 308, 417, 686, 697, 699, 729, 731 Cook county normal school, 847 Cooking schools, 568 Corbett, H. R., Free high schools for rural pupils, 274 Corning, J. L., Reports on the systems of public instruction in Württemberg. 557 Correlation of studies, 95 Correspondence schools, 369 Courses of study in medical schools, 165 Crime, France, 707; Germany, 446 Criminology, 105, 643 See also. Education and crime Cuba, education, 182, 436, 517 Current topics, 197, 303, 388, 437, 473, 488, 519 Curry, J. L. M., Education in the southern states, 401 National aid to education, 597 Curry, J. L. M., and his services to education in the South 401 Curtis, H. S., Vacation schools, playgrounds and settlements, 391 Cutter, C. A., 421
Rules for a dictionary catalogue, 689, 691, 692, 693 Dabney, C. W., Public school problem in the South, 819 Davis, N. S., Contributions to the history of medical education and medical institutions in the United States of America, 696 Dawson, N. H. R., Commissioner of education, 1-2, 55-57 Alaska, 620 Deaf and dumb, education, 583 Deafness among school children (Sexton) 583 Defective classes, schools, 801, 840, 433, 471, 507; statistics, 119, 161, 209, 256 Degree-conferring institutions, supervision, 189

See also Colleges and universities Degrees, honorary, colleges and universities, 742 Delaware, education, 399, 642 Denmark, education, 125, 557 Dental education in the United States, 185 DeRiemer, W. E., Education in India, 175 Development of English secondary schools for boys (Aronstein) 264 Dewey, Melvil, Papers prepared for the World's library congress, 78 Diplomas, sale, 698 Directories, educational, 96, 141, 186, 282, 325, 373, 415, 457, 494, **522** Discipline, school, see School discipline Diseases, schoolroom, see School hygiene District of Columbia, public schools, 33, 675 Dodge, W. E., 421 Drawing, industrial, see Art, industrial Drawing in the public schools (Clarke) 545, 733 Dresslar, F. B., tr. Auxiliary schools of Germany, by B. Maennel, 672 Dreyfus-Brisac, Edmond, University of Bonn, 587 Eaton, J. S., Educational training for railway service, 232 Eaton, J. S., Educational training for railway service, 252

Eaton, John, commissioner of education, 35-54
Address on museums illustrative of education, 581
Address on national aid to education, 565
Address on the needs of the Bureau of education, 562
Education in Porto Rico, 268
Notes on education at the Columbian exposition, 74
Royal normal college for the blind. London, 224
Sketches of educational benefactors and lives devoted to education, 419

```
Economic geography, see Geography, economic
Ecuador, education, 533
Education, constitutional provisions, 25, 554; consular reports, 149, 245, 831, 364, 404; current topics, 106, 197, 303, 388, 437, 473, 488, 519; discussions (Walker) 135; foreign countries, 213, 260; miscellaneous questions, 150, 226, 286, 356, 420, 749; national aid, 565, 597, 727; new history, 247; opinions, 34; Quincy method, 347; topics concerning the several States, 109, 146, 287; United States, foreign influence, 178
Education, a national interest, 22-23
Education and art, see Art and education
Education and crime, 241, 643, 710
See also Criminology
Education and labor, see Labor and education
Education and patho-social studies, 81
Education and state, 27
Education bill of 1906 for England and Wales as it past the House of commons (Smith)
Education of French and Prussian conscripts, 528
Educational conventions and anniversaries, see Conventions
Educational directories, see Directories, educational
Educational exhibitions, see Exhibitions
Educational extension in the United States (Adams) 267
Educational land grants, see Land grants for educational purposes
Educational land policy of the United States, 24
Educational matters of interest in various states, 109, 146, 287
Educational meetings, 33
Educational movement in the South (Rose) 398
Educational museums, see Museums, educational
Educational pathology or self-government in schools, 307
Educational periodicals, see Periodicals, educational
Educational progress of the year 1901-02 (Harper) 357
Educational societies, see Societies, educational
Educational towns in France (Ferry) 704
Educational training for railroad service, 232, 309
Educational values (Harris) 78
Educational writers, 316, 358, 396, 445
         See also Educators
Educators, 419
         See also Educational writers
Effects of student life upon the eyesight (Calhoun) 584
Egypt, education, 550
Elementary education, 706; London, 559; statistics, 712, foreign, 120
 Elimination of pupils from school (Thorndike) 673
Eliot, C. W., Expenditure for popular education justified by its results, 420 Good urban school organization, 420
Elliott, E. C., State school systems, 669
 Ellis, G. W., Education in Liberia, 484
 Emory-Henry college, 614
 Engineering colleges, entrance requirements, 137
See also Agricultural and mechanical colleges; Technical education
 England, higher education, 450; school law, 667; secondary education, 264; summer schools, 167; teaching, 247; civics, 129

See also Great Britain
 English rural schools (Hulbert) 574
 English-Eskimo and Eskimo-English vocabularies, 627
 Eskimo language, 145, 627
 Eskimos, Alaska, 627; Siberia, 627
 Europe, agriculture, 103; commercial education, 93, 128; education, 84, 127, 171, 219, 276, 305; industrial education, 173, 701
 Examinations, public schools, 635; teachers', 196, 591.
Exhibitions, educational, Chicago, World's Columbian exposition, 72, 74
Louisville, Ky., Southern exposition, 723
Nashville, Tenn., Centennial exposition, 140
New Orleans, World's industrial and cotton centennial exposition, 601, 724, 731
Paris exposition (Philbrick) 566; sociology, 289
Philadelphia, Centennial exposition, 548, 552, 569, 681, 697
St. Louis, Louislana purchase exposition, 413, 451, 452, 458, 459
Santiago, Chile, International exposition, 632
Vienna, International exposition, 538
 Expenditure for popular education justified by its results (Dilot) 420
 Experimental study of children (MacDonald) 183
 Eyesight, effects of study, 584
 Fay, E. W., History of education in Louisiana, 650
 Federal and state aid to higher education (Addis) 142; (Blackmar) 626
 Ferry, Jules, Educational towns in France, 704
                                                                                    Digitized by Google
```

Hampton institute, 448

```
Ficker, Dr. A., Educational statistics, 528
Fifty years of freedom in Belgium, 707
Finland, education, 557
First common schools of New England (Bush) 143
Fisher, Laura, Kindergarten, 406
Fletcher, A. C., Indian education and civilization, 732
Flint, Weston, Statistics of public libraries in the United States and Canada, 646
Florida, education, 621
Foreign students in German universities, 247
Forestry schools, 489, 580
France, J. M., Reports on the systems of public instruction in Greece, 533
France, agricultural education, 101, 482; commercial education, 93; crime, 707; education, 124, 180, 235, 322, 358, 403, 481, 512, 582, 704; illiteracy, 707; maternal schools, 589; summer schools, 167; teaching, civics, 129; technical education, 590
Franklin, Benjamin, and the University of Pennsylvania (Thorpe) 639
Franklin's influence in American education (Thorpe) 345
Free high schools for rural pupils (Corbett) 274
Free school systems, 274, 616, 677
French, F. G., Education in Denmark, 125
Education in Norway, 126
Fundamental to accessory in the development of the nervous system and of movements.
Future of the colored race, 240
Gade, Gerhard, Report on the system of public instruction in Norway, 529
Garfield, J. A., Education, a national interest, 23
Gay, G. E., Public schools of the United States, 451
Technical schools, art schools, etc., 452
Universities and colleges of foreign countries, 459
Universities and colleges of the United States, 458
Gayley, C. M., Account of the proceedings of the International congress for reproduction of manuscripts, Liege, 1905, 485
Geddes, Patrick, International association for the advancement of science, arts, and edu-
  cation, 308
Geography, economic, 238; teaching, 148
Georgia, education, 453, 617
German instruction in American schools (Viereck) 314
German language, teaching, United States, 314
German views of American education, 668
Germany, auxiliary schools, 672; commercial education, 93, 483; crime, 446; education, 416; industrial education, 102; secondary education, 546; teachers, training, 558; universities, foreign students, 247; pensions and insurance, 442
Gibbs, J. W., 421
Gilman, D. C., Report on the national schools of science, 37
Girls, education, 28, 715, 716
See also Women, education
Good urban school organisation (Eliot) 420
Goodnough, W. S., Aesthetic element in manual training, 108
Goodwin, W. W., Report of the director of the American school of classical studies at Athens for the year 1882-83, 725
Goodyear, W. H., Some principles of decorative art, 106
Gordy, J. P., Rise and growth of the normal-school idea in the United States, 636
Gove, Aaron, Public school systems of the United States, 397
Trail of the city superintendent, 270
Graded schools, see Public schools
Grading, see Promotions; Public schools
Grammar and vocabulary of the Hlingit language of southeastern Alaska (Kelly and
   Willard) 447
Great Britain, education, 123, 168, 216, 280, 318, 368, 393, 449, 511; university exten-
  sion, 233
See also England
Greece, education, 130, 583, 720; language, 284
Greek language, 45
Greenwood, J. M., Notes on the history of American text-books on arithmetic, 181, 280
Greer, J. N., History of education in Minnesota, 661
Growth of children, see Children, growth
Growth of Toronto children (Boas) 151
Gymnastics, see Physical training
Hailmann, W. N., German views of American education, 668
Hall, E. W., History of higher education in Maine, 666
Hampden-Sydney college, 614
```

Harper, W. R., Educational progress of the year 1901-2, 857
Ideals of educational work, 106 Harris, W. T., commissioner of education, 3-18, 58-507
Address at dedication of the McKinley manual training school, Washington, D. C., 420
Art education the true industrial education, 455
Bird's-eye view of the St. Louis public school system in 1880, 234
Definition of civilisation, 455
Educational values, 78
Intellectual value of tool work, 455
Reports of the Mosely educational commission, 478
Study\_of art and literature in schools, 227
Hartwell, F. M. On physical tensions, 137, 407 Hartwell, E. M., On physical training, 177, 407
Physical training in American colleges and universities, 608 Haskins, C. H., History of higher education in Pennsylvania, 663 Hatscheck, Julius, Regulations relating to pensions and insurance in all German universities, 442 Hawaii, education, 486 Hays, W. M., Agricultural education in high schools, 420 Heikel, Felix, Reports on the systems of public instruction in Finland, 557 High schools, public, justification, 273; Sweden, for girls, 715 See also Secondary education Higher education, 249, 292, 611; Colorado, 664; England, 450; federal aid, 142, 321, 626; Indiana, 629; Iowa, 645; Italy, 360; Kansas, 657; Kentucky, 655; Maine, 666; Massachusetts, 634; Michigan, 632; Missouri, 651; New York, 655; Ohio, 633; Pennsylvania, 663; Rhode Island, 648; South Carolina, 616; state aid, 142, 626; statistics, 115, 153, 712; Tennessee, 644; United States, 99, 201; Wisconsin, 622

\*\*Res also Colleges and universities; Professional education\*\* er, F. F., Education in Mexico and Central America, 91 Education in the Argentine Republic, Uruguay, and Brasil, 184 Hill, F. A., 421 Hinsdale, B. A., Notes on the history of foreign influence upon education in the United States. 178 Western literary institute and college of professional teachers, 228 Hinsdale, M. L., Legislative history of the public school system of Ohio, 306 Western literary institute and college of professional teachers, 228 History, study, 612 History of secondary instruction in Germany (Jacobson) 546 Hlingit language, Alaska, 447 Holden, E. S., United States naval academy at Annapolis, 229 Honorary degrees as conferred in American colleges (Smith) 742 Hopkins grammar school, New Haven, Conn., 283 Hough, F. B., Historical sketch of Union college, 688
Historical sketches of the universities and colleges of the United States, 717
Planting trees in school grounds, 722, 728 Hough, Franklin, Constitutional provisions in regard to education in the several states of the American Union, 554 Hough, Theodore, Swedish gymnastics, 239 Hulbert, H. W., English rural schools, 574 Hull, W. I., History of higher education in Pennsylvania, 663 Hygiene, 172 See also School hygiene Iceland, education, 97 Ideals of educational work (Harper) 106 Illiteracy, 361; statistics, 528; France, 707; United States, 387, 597 Imitation, study, 134 Inception, organization and management of training schools for nurses, 585 Indexes, American journal of education, 28, 745; Bureau of education, publications, 61, 510 India, education, 175 Indian school at Carlisle Barracks (Warren) 700 Indiana, higher education, 629 Indians, 695, 732; education, 741 Industrial art, see Art, industrial Industrial education, 85, 98, 160, 206, 253, 297, 668, 336, 428, 467, 502, 553, 588, 734, 735, 736; Argentine Republic, 475; Austria, 102; Europe, 173, 701; Germany, 102; The South, 618; Switserland, 102; United States, 409, 578, 718 Industrial exhibitions, see Exhibitions Inhibition, 811 Inspection, see Medical inspection of schools Instruction in forestry, 489 Insurance, colleges and universities, Germany, 442 Intellectual value of tool work (Harris) 455

```
International association for the advancement of science, arts, and education (Geddes)
International conference on education, Philadelphia, 697
International congress for reproduction of manuscripts, Liège, 485
International congress of educators, 731
International congress on technical education (Brooks) 174
International educational congress, Brussels, 699; Havre, 729
International exhibitions, see Exhibitions
International geographical congress, 3d, Venice, 707
International prison congress, 92, 595, 680
Iowa, higher education, 645
Ireland, education, 123, 168, 216, 280, 318, 368, 893, 449, 511
Italy, education, 231, 360, 514, 720; higher education, 360; kindergartens, 537; technical education, 533
Ives, H. C., Art education an important factor in industrial development, 487
Jackson, Sheldon, Education and reindeer in Alaska. 290, 520
Education in Alaska, 60, 63, 67, 70, 75, 79, 86, 110, 152, 199, 244, 329, 434, 472, 490, 738, 746
     Introduction of reindeer into Alaska, 200, 380, 435, 491, 748, 751
Jackson, W. R., Present status of the certification of teachers in the United States, 400
Jacobson, Herman, German and other foreign universities, 532
History of secondary instruction in Germany, 546
James, E. J., Commercial education in Europe, 93
Japan, education, 221, 549, 607, statistics, 533
Jarvis, Dr. Edward, Value of common school education to common labor, 567
Jastrow, J., Higher education for business men in the United States and Germany, 483
Jefferson, Thomas, 614
Jewell, J. R., Agricultural education, 671
Johnston, W. P., Work for a new South, criticism, 243
Jones, A. J., Continuation school in the United States, 670
Jones, C. E., Education in Georgia, 617
Joynes, E. S., Letter as to establishment of a normal school in Virginia, 312
Justification of the public high school (Morgan) 273
Juvenile criminality in Germany (Loening) 446
Kansas, higher education, 657
Kelly, J. W., English-Eskimo and Eskimo-English vocabularies, 627
Eskimo vocabularies, 145
Ethnographical memoranda concerning the Arctic Eskimos in Alaska and Siberia,
Kelly.
       W. A., Grammar and vocabulary of the Hlingit language of southeastern Alaska,
Kentucky, higher education, 655
Kindergartens, 211, 406, 537; Belgium, 537; Italy, 537; St. Louis, 138; statistics, 257,
  302, 386
Knight, G. W., History of higher education in Ohio, 633
Kovalevsky, E., Education in Russia, 371
Krohn. W. O., Minor mental abnormalities in children as occasioned by certain erroneous
  school methods, 225
Labor and education, 535, 567
Land grants for educational purposes, 21, 24, 26, 677
Land-grant colleges, 344, 392; courses of study, 132; industrial education, 736; technical education, 736
Lane, J. J., History of education in Texas, 665
Language question in Greece (Quinn) 284
Latin language, 44
Laveleye, E. de, Progress of education in Russia, 550
Law schools, see Professional education
Learned professions and social control (Addis) 144
Learned societies, see Societies, educational
Legal provisions respecting the examination and licensing of teachers, 591
Legal rights of children (Wilcox) 572
Legislative career of Justin S. Morrill (Atherton) 285
Leipzig university, 557
Leland, C. G., Industrial art in schools, 588
Length of teachers' service, 460
LeRossignol, J. E., History of higher education in Colorado, 664
Letter to editors and publishers of newspapers, 33
Lewis, A. F., History of higher education in Kentucky, 655
Lewis, R. E., State education in Japan, 221
Liberia, education, 484
```

Libraries, 279, 408, 689, 690; relation to public schools, 179, 275; United States and Canada, 646 See also College libraries; Library science; School libraries Library aids, 708 Library buildings, 577 Library catalogues, 748 Library legislation, 90 Library science, 73, 689, 690, 708 See also Cataloguing Licenses, teachers', see Teaching, certificates Liège, International congress for reproduction of manuscripts, 485 Limitations to artistic manual training (Richards) 106 Lindsay, S. M., Inauguration of the American school system in Porto Rico, 492 Liquor question, see Temperance instruction Literature, study, 227 Loening, Edgar, Juvenile criminality in Germany, 446 London, education, 394; elementary education, 559; Royal normal college for the blind, 224; School board, 394 Lopes, E. A., Old and new methods of teaching, 475 Louisiana, education, 650 Louisville, Ky., Southern exposition, education, 723 Lyte, E. O., State normal schools of the United States, 412 MacDonald, Arthur, Abnormal man, 648
Experimental study of children, including anthropometrical and psycho-physical measurements of Washington school children, 183 McKinley manual training school, Washington, D. C., dedication, 420 McLaughlin, A. C., History of higher education in Michigan, 632 Maennel, B., Auxiliary schools of Germany, 672 Maine, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; higher education, 666 Malta, education, 707 Mann, Horace, 94 Manual of the common native trees of the northern United States, 694 Manual training, 98, 160, 206, 258, 297, 386, 409, 428, 455, 467, 502, 624, 784, 737, 752; relation to art education, 106 Manuscripts, 485 Marble, A. P., Sanitary conditions for schoolhouses, 631 March, F. A., Spelling reform, 576, 647 Study of Angio-Saxon, 48 Martin, Artemas, Notes on the history of American text-books on arithmetic, 230 Martin, W. A. P., Report on the system of public instruction in China, 556 Maryland, education, 399, 649 Massachusetts, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; higher education, 634 Masson, Octavie, Kindergarten in Belgium, 537 Maternal schools in France, 589 Mathematics, history, 628; teaching, 628 Mayes, Edward, History of education in Mississippi, 654 Mayes, Edward, History of education in Mississippi, 654

Mayo, A. D., Building for the children in the South, 726

Development of the common school in the western states from 1830 to 1865, 223

Education in southwestern Virginia, 66

Final establishment of the American common school system in North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, 453

Final establishment of the American common school system in West Virginia, Maryland, Virginia, and Delaware, 399

Henry Barnard, 136

Industrial education in the South, 618

Organization and development of the American common school in the Atlantic and central states of the South, 1830 to 1860, 269

Organization and reconstruction of state systems of common-school education in the Organization and reconstruction of state systems of common-school education in the north Atlantic states from 1830 to 1865, 176

Services of Doctor Curry in connection with the Peabody fund, 401

Southern women in the recent educational movement in the South, 638

William Preston Johnston's work for a new South, 243

Work on certain northern churches in the education of the freedmen, 1861–1900, 348 Mead, E. D., Old South work, 278 Means for spreading hygienic knowledge among the people (Burgerstein) 172 Measure of a teacher's efficiency (Seaver) 475 Mechanical colleges, see Agricultural and mechanical colleges; see Technical education Medical education, 165, 679, 696, 705, 709

See also Professional education Medical inspection of schools, 191; foreign, 354 Mental fatigue in school, 100 Meriwether, Colyer, History of higher education in South Carolina, 616 Merriam, L. S., Higher education in Tennessee, 644

```
Metallurgy, 189
Mexico, education, 91
Michigan, higher education, 632
Military schools, see Virginia military institute
Mining engineering, 841

See also Technical education
Minnesota, education, 661
Minor mental abnormalities in children (Krohn) 225
Miscellaneous educational topics, 150, 226, 286, 856, 420
Mississippi, education, 654
Missouri, higher education, 651
Missouri university, 717
Modern language association of America, Committee of twelve, report, 187
Monroe, W. S., Progress of education in Italy, 514
Morality, 711
Morgan, H. H., Justification of the public high school, 273
Morgan, T. J., Indian education, 741
Morrill, J. S., 285
Mortality, see Teachers, mortality
Mosely educational commission, 478, 479
Mount Holyoke college, 687
Muhiberg, F., Natural science in secondary schools, 714
Murray, David, History of education in New Jersey, 653
Museums, educational, 581
Music, study, 609
Nashville, Tennessee centennial and international exposition, 140
National aid to education (Addis) 142; (Blackmar) 626; (Curry) 597; (Eaton) 565; statistics, 727
National education association of the United States, secondary education, report, 747
National education association of the United States, Department of superintendence, 190, 270, 384, 544, 547, 555, 561, 579, 586, 593, 598, 610, 613, 619, 628, 680, 731
National government and higher education (Walcott) 321
National land grants for educational purposes, 26
National pedagogic congress in Spain, 713
Natural science in secondary schools (Muhlberg) 714
Nature study, 671
Naval academy, United States, 229
Nebraska, education, 662
Necrology, 111, 212, 259, 350, 418
Negroes, education, 118, 208, 240, 254, 299, 338, 346, 348, 381, 431, 505
See also Southern states
Nervous system, 310
See also Inhibition; Physiology
Netherlands, education, 557
Netolitzky, August, Medical inspection of schools abroad, 854
New England, education, 143
New Hampshire, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; education, 652
New Haven, Connecticut, Hopkins grammar school, 283
New Jersey, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; education, 653
New Orleans, World's industrial and cotton centennial exposition, education, 601, 724, 731
New Prussian school law of 1906, 513
New York, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; higher education, 658; secondary education, 486
New Zealand, education, 170, 440
Newell, M. A., Contributions to the history of normal schools in the United States, 258
Noel, J. V., Report on the Chilean educational congress and exhibit, 417
Nohle, Dr. E., History of the German school system, 166
Normal and training schools, 32, 636, 716; statistics, 114, 156, 203, 252, 295, 334, 378, 426, 465, 500; United States, 258, 412; Virginia, 312

See also Cook county normal school; Teachers, training
North Atlantic states, public schools, 176
North Carolina, education, 453, 615
Norway, education, 126, 529
Nurses, training schools, 380, 430, 469, 504, 518, 585, 560
Nutting, M. A., Education and professional position of nurses. 518
Nutting, M. O., Historical sketch of Mount Holyoke seminary, 687
Obligations and opportunities of scholarship (Alderman) 270
Ohio, education, 306; higher education, 683
```

Old and new methods of teaching (Lopes) 475 Old South work (Mead) 278 Oldrini, Alexander, Bacelli bill for the reform of higher education in Italy, 360 Public education in Italy and its reform, 231 Olympic games of 1896, 106 Orcutt, Hiram, Methods of school discipline, 530 Organization, school, see School organization Organization and reconstruction of state systems of common-school education in the North Atlantic states from 1830 to 1865 (Mayo) 176 Orr, G. J., Address on the needs of education in the South, 563 Oxford university, 367 Pace, E. A., College woman, 475 Packard, R. L., Education in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines, 182 Palmer, A. F., 421 Paris exposition, education, 566; sociology, 289 Parochial schools, see Catholic parochial schools of the United States Parker, Francis Wayland, and his work for education, 347 Parker, L. F., Higher education in Iowa, 645 Peabody, E. P., Kindergarten in Italy, 537 Peabody fund, trustees, 401 Pearne, T. H., Education in the British West Indies. 536 Peaslee, J. B., Address on arbor day in the public schools, 599 Celebration of arbor day, 728 Pedagogy, 713
See also Teaching Pennsylvania, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; higher education, 663 Pennsylvania university, 639 Pensions, colleges and universities, Germany, 442

See also Teachers, pensions Periodicals, educational, 237, 281, 324, 372, 414, 456, 521 Philadelphia centennial exhibition, education, 548, 552, 555, 569, 681, 683, 697 Philadelphia normal school for girls, 716 Philbrick, J. D., Address on education at the Paris exposition, 566 City school systems in the United States, 604 Philippine Islands, education, 182, 327, 385, 436, 499, 517 Philosophy and methods of the kindergarten (Bülow) 537 Phonography, see Stenography Physical training, 177, 407, 608; Sweden, 239 Physics, teaching, 575, 603 Physiology, 270, 310 Pitman, Benn, Sir Isaac Pitman and his services to phonography, 475 Pitman, Sir Isaac, and his services to phonography, 475 Planting trees in school grounds (Hough) 722, 728 Play grounds, 277, 391 Plugge, C. H., Reports on the systems of public instruction in the Netherlands. 557 Poole. W. F., Construction of library buildings, 577 Portable schoolhouses, see Schoolhouses, portable Porto Rico, education, 182, 266, 374, 492 Portugal, education, 539, 557; statistics, 533 Powell, L. P., History of education in Delaware, 642 Practical and industrial education in the Argentine Republic (Zubiaur) 475 Present status of the certification of teachers in the United States (Jackson) 400 Prisons, congresses, 92, 595, 630 Private schools, United States, 83 Professional education, 65, 144, 272, 376, 425, 464, 499, 527; Philadelphia international exhibition, 681; statistics, 116, 155, 250, 293

Sec also Higher education; Medical education Progress of educational reform in China (Williams) Progress of public education in Italy (Suzzara-Verdi) 360 Progress of western education in China and Siam, 703 Promotions, public schools, 222, 635 Prussia, agricultural education, 101; colleges and universities, women students, 247; school law, 513; secondary education, 30 Psychological tendencies, 134 Public and private kindergartens, 211 Public instruction, see Public schools

Public libraries, see Libraries
43488—08——5

School settlements, 391

```
Public schools, 273, 420, 669; Bible study, 193; courses of study, Germany, 416; Delaware, 399; District of Columbia, 33, 675; Georgia, 453; grading, 69; Maryland, 399; medical inspection, 191, 354; New England, 143; North Carolina, 453; relation to public libraries, 179, 275; Southern states, 289, 319; South Carolina, 268, 453; statistics, 88, 190; United States, 33, 83, 451; Virginia, 268, 399; Western states, 223; West Virginia, 399

**See also City school systems**
Pupil self-government, 307, 530
Pupils, classification, 222
Quincy method, 347
Quinn, Daniel, Education in Greece, 1
Language question in Greece, 284
Railroad service, 232, 309
Randali, C. D., Fifth International prison congress, 92
Fourth International prison congress, 630
Randolph-Macon college, 614
Readjustment of the collegiate to the professional course (Baldwin) 272
Recognized medical colleges in the United States, 709
Reed, Sir Charles Address, 559
Reform schools, 432, 553; statistics, 120, 162, 210, 255, 300, 339, 382, 470, 506
Reindeer, Alaska, 200, 290, 330, 435, 454, 491, 520, 743, 751, 753
Relation of education to industry and technical training in American schools (White)
  578
Relation of education to labor, 535
Relation of manual training and art education (Bennett) 106
Relation of manual training to body and mind (Woodward) 624
Research, national aid, 321
Rhode Island, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; higher education, 648
Rhodes scholarship, 480
Richards, C. R., Limitations to artistic manual training, 106
Richardson, W. G., Latin pronunciation, 44
Richmond college, 614
Rise and growth of the normal-school idea in the United States (Gordy) 636
Roanoke college, 614
Robinson, O. II., Rochester university library, 570
Rochester university library (Robinson) 570
Rockwell, J. E., Shorthand instruction and practice, 640
Teaching, practice, and literature of shorthand, 596
Rôle of the school-teacher in the struggle against alcoholism (Sluys) 271
Rose, Wyckliffe, Educational movement in the South, 398
Royal normal college for the blind, London, 224
Royal Prussian industrial commission, 668
Ruffner, Henry, Proposed plan for the organization and support of common schools in
   Virginia, 268
Rules for a dictionary catalogue (Cutter) 689, 691, 692, 693
Rural education, 274
Rural schools, 602; architecture, 573; English, 574
Russia, education, 371, 550
St. Louis, kindergartens. 138; Louisiana purchase exposition, education, 413, 451, 452, 458, 459; public schools, 234
Salaries, see Teachers, salaries
Salve, M. de, Education in Turkey, 550
Sanitary conditions for schoolhouses (Marble) 631
Santiago, Chilian international exposition, education, 682
Savings banks, 707
School architecture, 31, 573
School attendance, 673
School boards, 89
School discipline, 307, 530
School expenditure, 420
School gardens, 671
School hygiene, 528, 631
Sec also Hygiene
School law, 196, 344, 392, 594, 669; England, 667; Prussia, 513; United States, 77; Wales, 667
School libraries, 279, 408
School management, see Pupil self-government
School officials, United States, 684
School organization, 528
School savings banks, 707
```

School systems, Argentine Republic, 533; Bollvia, 589; Chile, 533; China, 556; Denmark, 557; Ecuador, 533; Egypt, 550; Finland, 557; Germany, 166; Greece, 533; Netherlands, 557; Norway, 529; Porto Rico, 492; Portugal, 539, 557; Spain, 539; Sweden, 448, 529; Uruguay, 539, Württemberg, 557

Sce also City school systems; State school systems; names of other countries Schoolhouses, architecture, 31; portable, 260; sanitary conditions, 631 Schoolrooms, decorations, 107; diseases, 528 Schools, statistics, 384

See also Private schools; Public schools Science, advancement, 308 Scientific schools, see Agricultural and mechanical colleges Scotland, summer schools, 167 Seaver, E. P., Measure of a teacher's efficiency, 475 Secondary education, 29, 83, 99, 273, 402, 747; agriculture, 420; England, 264; Germany, 546; natural science, 714; New York, 486; Prussia, 30; statistics, 113, 157, 204, 296, 335, 427, 466, 501, 712; Sweden, 715 Self-government, see Pupil self-government Servia, education, 550 Settlements, school, 391 Sexton, Samuel, Causes of deafness among school children and its influences on education. KR3 Sheedy, M. M., Catholic parochial schools of the United States, 411 Sheffield, education, 707 Sherwood, Sidney, University of the state of New York, 658 Shinn, J. H., History of education in Arkansas, 656 Shiras, Alexander, National Bureau of education, 685 Shorthand, see Stenography Shorthand instruction and practice (Rockwell), 640 Shufeldt, R. W., Outlines for a museum of anatomy, 780 Siam, education, 703 Siberia, Eskimos, 627 Sluys, A., Role of the school-teacher in the struggle against alcoholism. 271 Smart, J. II., Teachers' institutes, 605 Smith, A. T., Coeducation in the schools and colleges of the United States, 410
Education bill of 1906 for England and Wales as it past the House of commons, 667
Education in Canada, 169
Education in France, 124, 180
Education in Great Britain and Ireland, 123, 168
Public education in Australia, New Zealand, and Tasmania, 170 Rural schools, 602 Smith, C. F., Honorary degrees as conferred in American colleges, 742 Smith, C. L., History of education in North Carolina, 615 Smith, L. A., Recent school law decisions, 594 Smith, Walter, Address on technical education and industrial drawing, 564 Snow, M. S., Higher education in Missouri, 651 Societies, educational, 80, 542 Sociology, 139 Sociology at the Paris exposition of 1900 (Ward) 289 Southern states, education, 243, 269, 313, 398, 401, 563, 600, 638, 726; history, 278; industrial education, 618; public schools, 319

See also Negroes South Carolina, education, 268, 453; higher education, 616 Southern educational association, Richmond, 313 Southern women in the recent educational movement in the South (Mayo) 638 Spain, education, 539 Spelling, reform, 576, 647 Spencer, D. E., Higher education in Wisconsin, 622 State aid to education, 142, 626 State constitutions, educational provisions, 25, 554 State legislation respecting establishment of scientific schools, 26 State school systems, 27, 77, 176, 397, 669; Ohio, 306; statistics, 164, 215, 262, 843, 390, 439, 495, 523 State supervision of degree-conferring institutions, 189 State supervision of public schools, 27 Statistics of education (Ficker) 528 Steiner, B. C., History of education in Connecticut, 641 History of education in Maryland, 649 Stenography, 475, 596, 640 Steuart, J. H., University of Leipzig, 557 Studies, correlation, 95 Study of art and literature in schools (Harris) 227 Study of history in American colleges and universities (Adams) 612

```
Study of music in public schools, 609
Suggestions for a free-school policy for United States land grantees 677
Summer schools, England, 167; France, 167; Scotland, 167; Switzerland, 167
See also Vacation schools
Sunday schools, 131
Superintendents, city, 270
Suzzara-Verdi, Tullio de, Progress of public education in Italy, 360
Sweden, education, 97, 220, 448, 529; physical education, 239; secondary education, 715
Swedish gymnastics (Hough) 239
Switzerland, commercial education, 363; industrial education, 102; summer schools, 167;
   teaching, civics, 129
Tasmania, education, 170
Teachers, efficiency, 475; length of service, 460; mortality, 247; pensions, 85, 247; sai-
aries, 247; training, 228; training, Germany, 558
See also Examinations; Normal and training schools
Teachers' institutes, 605
See also Normal and training schools
Teaching, certificates, 196, 400, 591; chemistry, 575; England, 247; methods, 225, 475; physics, 575, 603; Wales, 247
        See also Pedagogy
Technical education, 174, 232, 309, 423, 452, 463, 497, 525, 564, 606, 674, 735, 736; France, 590; Italy, 533; United States, 409, 578

Sec. also Agricultural and mechanical colleges; Engineering colleges
Temperance instruction, 320; iaws, 849; public schools, 444
Tennessee, higher education, 644
Texas, education, 665
Text-books, bibliography, 236
Textile schools, see Industrial education
Thomas, W. S., Changes in the age of college graduation, 383
Thompson, C. O., Review of the reports of the British royal commissioners on technical instruction, 606
Thorndike, E. L., Elimination of pupils from school, 673
Thornwell, Dr. J. H., Letter to Governor Manning on public instruction in South Carolina, 268
Thorpe, F. N., Benjamin Franklin and the University
Franklin's influence in American education, 345
             N., Benjamin Franklin and the University of Pennsylvania, 639
Thwing, C. F., American universities, 395
Tolman, W. H., History of higher education in Rhode Island, 648
Toner, J. M., Contributions to the annals of medical progress and medical education in
the United States, before and during the War of independence, 679
Facts of vital statistics in the United States, 534
Toronto, children, growth, 151
Trail of the city superintendent (Gove) 270
Training schools, see Normal and training schools
Training schools for nurses, 560
Training schools of cookery, 568
Trees, United States, 694; in school grounds, 722, 728
Sec also Arbor day
Truant schools, 265
True, A. C., American system of agricultural education and research, 489
Turkey, education, 550
Typical institutions offering manual and industrial training (Boykin), 98
Union college, 688
United States, education, foreign influence, 178; German views, 668; relation to industry, 578; statement of theory, 678
United States naval academy at Annapolis (Holden) 229
Universities and colleges, see Colleges and universities
University extension in Great Britain (Adams) 233
University of the state of New York (Sherwood) 658
University types and ideals, 188
Uruguay, education, 184, 539
Vacation colonies for sickly school children, 702
Vacation schools, 277, 391
        See also Summer schools
Value of common school education to common labor (Jarvis) 567
Van Bokkelen, L., Compulsory education, 531
Vermont, colleges and universities, commencements, 541; education, 659
Vessiot, A., Instruction in morals and civil government, 711
Vienna, International exposition, education, 538
Viereck, L., German instruction in American schools, 314
Virchow, Dr. R., School-room diseases, 528
Virginia, education, 66, 268, 399; normal and training schools, 312
```

Virginia military institute, 614

Virginia university, 614

Waid. L. F., Sociology at the Paris exposition of 1900, 289

Walcott, C. D., Relations of the National government to higher education and research, 321 Wales, school law, 667; teaching, 247

Walker, F. A., 135
Discussion of educational topics, 135

Warren, Charles, Answers to inquiries about the United States Bureau of education, 721
Distribution of college students in 1870-71, 534
Illiteracy in the United States in 1870 and 1880, 597
Indian school at Carlisle Barracks, 700
Inquiry concerning the vital statistics of college graduates, 534

Warren, Joseph, Schools in British India, 540

Warren, S. E., Public libraries in the United States of America, 689

Washington, D. C., study of children, 183

Washington and Lee university, 614

Waste of labor in the work of education (Chadbourne) 551

Watson, Foster, Notices of some early English writers on education, 316, 353, 396, 445

Wead, C. K., Aims and methods of the teaching of physics, 603

Weeks, S. B., Art decorations in school-rooms, 107 Confederate text-books, 236 Preliminary list of American learned and educational societies, 80

Wells, Roger, English-Eskimo and Eskimo-English vocabularies, 627 Eskimo vocabularies, 145

West Indies, see British West Indies

West Virginia, education, 399, 660

Western literary institute and college of professional teachers (Hinsdale, B. A., and Hinsdale, M. L.) 228

Western states, public schools, 223

What is education? 34

What knowledge is of most worth? (Butler) 106

White, E. E., 421

Promotions and examinations in graded schools, 635

Relation of education to industry and technical training in American schools, 578

Whitehill, A. R., History of education in West Virginia, 660

Wickersham, J. P., Education and crime, 710

Wilcox, S. M., Legal rights of children, 572

**W**III, 359

H., Grammar and vocabulary of the Hlingit language of southeastern Willard, F. Alaska, 447

Willard, H. K., Contributions to the history of the Hopkins grammar school, New Haven, Connecticut, 283

William and Mary college, 611

Williams, E. T., Progress of educational reform in China, 489

Winsor, Justin, College library, 570

Wisconsin, higher education, 622

Wise, H. A., Address, 268

Wissler, Clark, Statistics of growth, 441

Women, education, 28, 475

See also Coeducation; Girls

Women and education, 638

Women students in Prussian universities, 247

Woodburn, J. A., Higher education in Indiana, 629

Woodward, C. M., Manual, industrial and technical education in the United States, 409 Relation of manual training to body and mind, 624

Work and influence of Hampton, 443

Work of certain northern churches in the education of the freedmen 1861-1900 (Mayo) 348

World's fairs, see Exhibitions

Württemberg, education, 557

Zublaur, J. B., Practical and industrial education in the Argentine Republic, 475

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**BULLETIN, 1908: NO. 3** 

WHOLE NUMBER 386

# BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EDUCATION FOR 1907

COMPILED BY

JAMES INGERSOLL WYER, Jr., and MARTHA L. PHELPS

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## CONTENTS.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL	Page.
Introduction	7
History	7
Plan	7
Literature of 1907	8
Outline of classification	10
Bibliography	12
Education—theory, philosophy	14
Psychology and education	16
Periodicals	17
Associations and societies	17
The study of education	19
History of education	19
Biography	23
Teachers, methods, discipline	25
Teachers	25
Training of teachers	25
Salaries of teachers	27
Pensions for teachers	28
School organization and administration; the superintendent	28
Vacation schools	29
Classification of pupils	29
Promotion of pupils	29
Methods of instruction	29
Manual training	30
Government, discipline, punishment	31
Attendance	31
Corporal punishment	31
School buildings and furniture	31
School libraries; libraries and schools	31
School hygiene	32
Physical training, gymnastics, athletics	33
Student life, customs, and societies	33
Education of special classes (defectives, dependents, delinquents)	34
Negro education	34
Indian education	35
Elementary education	35
Kindergarten	35
Private secondary schools	36

### CONTENTS.

the contract of the contract o	I Me
The curriculum: Methods in special branches	36
Elective studies	<b>3</b> 6
Theology	<b>3</b> 6
Sociology	37
Law	·37
Language	37
Science	37
Nature study	38
Mathematics	38
Technical and industrial education; engineering	38
Medicine	41
Agriculture	42
Domestic science	43
Commercial education	44
Art education	44
Music	44
English language and literature	44
Modern languages	46
The classics	46
History	47
Geography	47
Education of women	47
Coeducation	48
Religious and moral education	48
Higher education: Colleges and universities	50
College entrance requirements	55
Academic degrees	56
Graduate work: research	56
Public secondary education: The State and education.	56
School finance, taxation	56
School laws	57
School supervision	57
Compulsory education	57
Secondary education in different countries	57
And the second of the second o	٠,
•	-

## LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, June 5, 1908.

Sir: I have the honor to transmit herewith the manuscript of a bibliography of education for the year 1907, compiled by James Ingersoll Wyer, jr., and Martha L. Phelps, of the New York State Library. The wide usefulness of these annual bibliographies has been clearly shown in connection with the publications of Mr. Wyer and his associates since the year 1899. It is found especially desirable to have such a publication issued as a part of the plan now in course of realization, of making the library of this office more directly useful to the libraries of educational institutions and to individual students of education throughout the country. I would respectfully recommend the publication of this bibliography, in the belief that it will have such wide and varied use.

I have the honor to be,

Very respectfully,

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN,

Commissioner.

The Secretary of the Interior.

5

## BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EDUCATION FOR 1907.

### INTRODUCTION.

#### HISTORY.

This bibliography is the ninth similar annual summary of the English literature of education. The first eight numbers, covering the years 1899–1906, appeared in the Educational Review for April, 1900; April, 1901; June, 1902, 1903, 1904, 1905; September–October, 1906, and June, 1907. The publication of the present number is assumed by the United States Bureau of Education.

There is also incorporated into the present annual summary, as the initial group of titles, under the caption "Bibliography," the annual list of "Recent Educational Bibliography," which has been printed in each October number of the School Review since 1898. Thus the two principal annual guides to the literature of educational topics have been united under new auspices in the present publication.

#### PLAN.

The bibliography is planned to include:

- Books on educational subjects printed in the English language in 1907
- 2. Important articles on the same topic from the periodicals of 1907.
- 3. Valuable papers published in the transactions of educational societies that bear the imprint date 1907.
- 4. All chapters of distinct educational interest from any books bearing date 1907 and all notable matter of the same sort wherever found.
- It does not include:
- a. Purely local current literature and reports of separate institutions, provinces, colonies, or states. For all such material the student is referred to reports of state departments and of the thousands of educational institutions in this country, in Great Britain, and in the colonies.
- b. Unimportant matter, such as is being constantly published in journals.

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- c. Text-books.
- d. New editions with slight and unimportant changes.

The distinctive features of the compilation are:

- 1. The careful examination of all matter included and the selection of only what seems important.
- 2. The numerous descriptive annotations.
- 3. The classification by subject-matter so that the worker in any line may find together the literature of interest to him. The decimal classification has, with a few deviations, been followed, both as being on the whole the most satisfactory classification in use, and as being very widely used by libraries.

A detailed outline of the classification precedes the bibliography. The student of school hygiene, for example, finding from this outline that the year's literature on that subject is grouped under section 371.7, has but to turn to the section having that number in each of the previous annual lists to bring under his eyes the titles of the most important books and articles of the past nine years on his specialty. An author index of names and a minute subject index, bringing out many topics not mentioned in the classification, are appended.

Unanimity, or even general agreement, can not be hoped for as to the selection, from the vast range of the annual literature on educational topics, of the articles that are best worth mention in a list like this, a list aiming at selection rather than completeness. Most of the current contributions appear in the proceedings of educational societies, and when the annual volume of papers and addresses of the National Education Association, the most important body of educators in the country, contains so much that, however pertinent and profitable it may have been as originally given, is trivial when considered for the purposes of this bibliography, the task of the bibliographer in examining the annual grist of similar grain is not an easy one. It has, indeed, seemed wisest in case of doubt to include certain titles of apparently indifferent value (with suitable descriptive notes) rather than to risk the omission of articles that might be helpful.

It is not claimed that all the matter listed here has permanent value. Much of it is but current chronicle, yet as such topics are tomorrow matters of educational history, it seems proper to include some of the most important literature relating to them.

## LITERATURE OF 1907.

The official and semiofficial literature of the year has been unusually extensive. Two complete annual reports (four volumes) of the United States Commissioner of Education bring the belated series close up to date, and provide statistical summaries covering nearly all phases of American education, while the figures are relatively fresh. The National Education Association, in its interesting fiftieth anni-

versary volume and the usual annual volume of proceedings, covering the Los Angeles meeting, has also given us double measure: the notable papers read before the educational congress at the St. Louis exposition in 1904 at last have been collected and published (No. 61 below), while in value and extent the published papers and discussions of the constantly increasing number of educational associations have not been less than in past years. The important series of special reports from the British education office, begun under the editorship of Doctor Sadler, is increased by several new volumes (Nos. 81, 84, 295 below). An examination of section 375.6 of the bibliography and a comparison with the same section for previous years bring out sharply the marked increase in the attention paid to the subject of industrial education within a single year. Doctor Sadler's encyclopedic volume (No. 264) is easily the most significant contribution to a knowledge of the work done in Europe, while the monograph by Mr. A. J. Jones (No. 255), the formation of a national society for the promotion of this form of education (No. 260), a report of real progress by the new Massachusetts commission (No. 257), the attention paid to the topic on the programme of the Social Education Congress in Boston (No. 266), and an excellent synopsis (No. 261) of its importance and possibilities by Mr. H. S. Person, all testify to a new and very lively interest in the subject in the United States.

The other topic which has received the most unwonted discussion during the year under review is that of teachers' salaries and pensions. The work and reports of the Carnegie Foundation have undoubtedly stimulated some cities and States to consider and adopt pension plans, and the matter of salaries has shown a "sympathetic" interest which has in New York State gone to the point of attempting to secure (see No. 146) "equal pay for equal work" for both sexes through mandatory legislation.

Among the books dealing with educational theory which challenge attention either by extent, timeliness, or content are Bray—The Town Child (No. 26); Chancellor—Motives, Ideals, and Values in Education (No. 29); Keatinge—Suggestion in Education (No. 51); and Urwick—The Child's Mind (No. 53).

In methodology Bagley—Classroom Management (No. 168) deals not with how best to teach the substance of the various branches, but with the principles and technique of the routine of the schoolroom; De Garmo—Principles of Secondary Education (No. 227) carefully analyzes the content and value of the curriculum, subject by subject; while in MacClintock—Literature in the Elementary School (No. 308), O'Shea—Linguistic Development and Education (No. 237), and Young—Teaching of Mathematics in the Elementary and

Secondary School (No. 245) we have interesting or important contributions to the methodology of special branches.

Freeman—Schools of Hellas (No. 91) and Monroe—History of the Pestalozzian Movement in the United States (No. 110) are noteworthy additions to educational history, and in the allied field of biography Compayré's monographs on Herbart, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Spencer, and Mann have been published in English translations during the year. In other directions should be noticed Miss Burstall's English High Schools for Girls (No. 330); the California prize essays on Moral Training in the Public Schools (No. 350); and the annual volume from the Religious Education Association (No. 351).

Dealing with higher education are the two little volumes of reprinted papers and addresses by C. F. Adams (No. 381) and Prof. A. F. West (No. 396), and above all Birdseye—Individual Training in Our Colleges (No. 384), which, while perhaps somewhat overdrawing conditions and unduly magnifying the remedial possibilities of college fraternities, was characterized by a reviewer in the Dial as "the most important book on education which has appeared in the last ten years."

The compilers are indebted to Prof. M. E. Sadler for help in selecting the British titles, and he in turn has associated with himself Prof. John Adams, Prof. J. J. Findlay, Mrs. McKenzie, Harrold Johnson, Prof. A. Darroch, Prof. E. P. Culverwell, and Mr. A. E. Twentyman, to whom acknowledgments are also made.

#### OUTLINE OF CLASSIFICATION.

Bibliography.

370. EDUCATION-THEORY, PHILOSOPHY.

370.1 Psychology and education.

370.5 Periodicals.

370.6 Associations.

370.7 The study of education.

370.9 General histories of education: historical material for different countries arranged alphabetically by countries.

370.92 Biography.

371. TEACHERS, METHODS, DISCIPLINE,

371.1 Teachers.

371.12 Training of teachers.

371.16 Salaries for teachers.

371.17 Pensions for teachers.

371.2 School organization and administration; the superintendent.

371.23 Vacation schools.

371.25 Classification of pupils.

371.28 Promotion of pupils.

371.3 Methods of instruction. (For methods in special branches see 375 and its subdivisions.)

371.42 Manual training.

371.5 Government, discipline, punishment.

371.52 Attendance, truancy.

371.55 Corporal punishment.



Bibliography-Continued.

371. TEACHERS, METHODS, DISCIPLINE—Continued.

371.6 School buildings and furniture.

371.64 School libraries; libraries and schools.

371.7 School hygiene.

371.73 Physical education, gymnastics, athletics.

371.8 Student life, customs, and societies.

371.9 Education of special classes (defectives, dependents, delinquents).
371.94 Negro.

371.95 Indian.

372. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

372.2 Kindergarten.

373. SECONDARY EDUCATION OTHER THAN PUBLIC, arranged alphabetically by countries.

375. CURRICULUM.

375.04 Elective studies.

375.2-375.9 Special subjects of instruction, divided according to decimal classification.

376. EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

376.7 Coeducation.

377. RELIGIOUS AND MORAL EDUCATION.

378. HIGHER EDUCATION; COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES; for special countries, arranged alphabetically by countries.

378.01 College entrance requirements.

378.2 Academic degrees.

378.3 Graduate work; research.

379. PUBLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION.

379.11 School finance, taxation.

379.14 School laws.

379.15 School supervision.

379.23 Compulsory education.

379.5 Secondary education in different countries, arranged alphabetically.

A minute subject index of topics not brought out in the above outline is found incorporated with the author index at the end of the bibliography.

The abbreviations used are ordinary ones and easily comprehended. Volume and page are separated by the colon. Thus 6:386-407 means vol. 6, pages 386 to 407. N. E. A. Proc. is, of course, National Education Association, Journal of Proceedings. The reports of the United States Commissioner of Education, Dr. E. E. Brown, are entered as a whole and each important article appears also under its appropriate subject. An excellent summary of contents in the introduction makes the use of the volumes easier and more profitable. No date beyond the month is given in the references, as 1907 is always understood.

# BIBLIOGRAPHY OF EDUCATION, 1907.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY.

 Agricultural education. Jewell, J. R. Agricultural education including nature study and school gardens. (U. S.—Education Bureau. Bulletin 2, 1907, p. 128-32.)

One bundred and twenty-three titles classified under the beadings, Nature study and school gardens; Elementary instruction; Secondary instruction; Collegiate instruction.

2. Attendance. References to publications relating to school attendance and the welfare of children. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 2:1288-90.)

Sections on Compulsory education; truancy; school hygiene; juvenile courts.

3. Auxiliary schools. Maennel, B. Führer durch die Literatur des Hilfsschulwesens (in Kinderfehler, Oct., 1906, and following numbers).

A comprehensive and systematically classified bibliography. A selection is appended to No. 3 of the Bulletin for 1907 of the U. S. Bureau of Education.

- Canada—Education. Coleman, H. T. J. Public education in upper Canada. p. 118-20.
- Child study. Smith, T. L. Bibliography of articles relating to the study of childhood and adolescence which have been published in the Pedagogical seminary and American journal of psychology. (Ped. sem. Sept., 14: 355-65.)

Two hundred and three items listed by author with minute subject index.

- 6. Washburne, Mrs. M. F. Study of child life. 1907. p. 170-74.
- Wilson, L. N. Bibliography of child study for the year 1906. (Ped. sem. 14: 329-354.)

This 10th similar annual summary shows 362 titles, most of them on some near or remote phase of the subject. It is followed by a list of 203 articles on child study which have appeared within 15 years in the Pedagogical Seminary.

- 8. Colleges and universities. Snow, L. F. The college curriculum in the United States. p. 184-86.
- 9. Continuation schools. Jones, A. J. The continuation school in the United States. (U. S.—Education Bureau, Bulletin 1, 1907.)

A considerable bibliography is appended.

Sadler, M. E. ed. Continuation schools in England and elsewhere. See No. 264 for full entry. List of books and papers relating to the continuation school in France is found on p. 641-42; in Germany, p. 534; in the U. S., p. 655 and 673; in Denmark, p. 512; in Great Britain, p. 750-54.

- Denison university. Hines, Mrs. K. S. Denison bibliography. (Denison memorial volume. 1907. p. 151-61.)
- Education. Loos, Joseph. Enzyklopädisches Handbuch der Erziehungskunde. 2 v. 1906–8. Leipzig.

A wealth of bibliographical references, almost wholly to German books, appears at the end of each important article.

13. — Tyler, J. M. Growth and education. p. 271-91.

Five hundred and twenty-five titles grouped according to the titles of chapters forming the book. The references on some of the minor topics should be especially useful.

14. — Wyer, J. I. Recent educational bibliography. (School rev. Oct., 15:608-14.)

In this tenth similar annual list, 37 items are noted and reviewed.

 ——Wyer, J. I., and Brown, M. G. Bibliography of education for 1906. (Educ. rev. June, 34: 47-93.)

Eighth similar annotated list of educational literature in English. Discontinued in the Educational Review and the list covering the year 1907 taken over by the Bureau of Education.

 Education—History. Anderson, L. F. A study of medieval schools and school work. (Ped. sem. 14: 223–82.)

Seventy-four titles, German, Latin, French, and English, including many unusual books of rather collateral but very vital relation to the subject.

Industrial education. Richards, C. R. Selected bibliography on industrial education.
 32 p. O. (Nat. soc. for the promotion of industrial education, Bulletin 2.)

Twenty-seven books and 86 briefer articles, all in English, are listed. The descriptive and critical notes are full. Nearly all material has appeared since 1892, relates mainly to the United States, and excludes matter on manual training and higher technical education. A subject index is prefixed.

Manual training. Pierce, Louisa. Bibliography of the manual arts, September, 1905 to September, 1907. (In Council of supervisors of the manual arts. Yearbooks 1906, p. 203-35; 1907, p. 139-59. Sec'y of the Council, E. D. Griswold, Yonkers, N. Y.)

This list is an annual feature. It is an annotated author list with a subject index and is of importance to any who follow the literature of the subject.

19. Mathematics. Young, J. W. A. The teaching of mathematics in the elementary and the secondary school. 351 p. D. Longmans, \$1.50.

The bibliographies at the heads of the chapters form an extensive and useful collection of thies on the various phases of the pedagogy of mathematics.

- 20. Play. Johnson, G. E. Education by plays and games. p. 223-28.
  Ninety English titles, classified under the following headings: Periods of growth; Meaning of play; Play in education; Play and games.
- 21. Reform schools. Snedden, D. S. Administration and educational work of American juvenile reform schools.

Brief bibliographies appear at the ends of chapters.

22. West Virginia university. Leonard, P. W. Bibliography of West Virginia university, its faculty and graduates, 1867-1907. 62 p. O. The Univ., Morgantown, W. Va.

# 370. EDUCATION—THEORY, PHILOSOPHY.

23. Allen, A. W. Home, school and vacation. 220 p. D. Houghton, \$1.25. Counsel and suggestion to parents by a mother who believes that sincere, educated, and conscientious fathers and mothers who can provide good homes should do much more of the education of their children in these homes than is contemplated in the prevalent conception of the function of the public school.

Baker, J. H. American problems; essays and addresses. 222 p. Longman's, \$1.20.

Part 3 comprises 6 brief articles on educational topics: The teacher taught.—Evolution and education (a review of Hall: Adolescence).—The culture element and economy of time in education.—Electives in secondary schools.—The American university.—A national university. The pieces are thoughtful comments on current problems by a practical educator.

25. The basis of an effective education—culture or vocation. (School rev. May, 15: 333-74.)

Symposium by R. A. Woods, A. E. Kennelly, and A. W. Roberts at meeting of Harvard Teachers' Association,

26. Bray, Reginald. The town child. 333 p. D. Fisher Unwin, 7s. 6d.

Advocates State intervention and regulation throughout the whole of the upbringing of a child. The first part of the books contrasts city and country environments as to their psychological effects upon the child body and mind.

The second part describes the nature, object, and method of the ideal education which should develop the child; not only treating its general phases but discussing many specific topics, such as "feeding school children," the "religious question," the "feeding of mothers," etc.

27. Brown, E. E. Are we an inventive people in the field of education? (Science, 9 Aug., n. s. 26:161-70.)

Address delivered before Phi Beta Kappa at Vassar College, June, 1907.

A short list is given of what may be called distinctively American contributions to education, but to support the author's statement that "our educational invention still lags far behind our invention in the domain of mechanism" a longer list appears of "points where our educational invention has thus far falled to do its work." The three following "problems now calling for constructive leadership" are discussed at some length: (1) Combination of the methods of the literary school with the methods of apprenticeship; (2) differentiation of woman's education; (3) international organization of education.

28. Burbank, Luther. The training of the human plant. 99 p. S. Century, 60c.

CONTENTS.—The mingling of races.—The teachings of nature.—Differentiation in training.—Sunshine, good air, and nourishing food.—Dangers.—Marriage of the physically unfit.—Heredity—predestination—training.—Growth.—Environment the architect of heredity.—Character.—Fundamental principles.

Thoughts and speculations as to the application of principles of plant culture to the education of children. Also in Century, May 1906.

Chancellor, W. E. A theory of motives, ideals, and values in education.
 p. O. Houghton, \$1.75.

A discussion of education as an integral part of civilization. Shows wide reading and is furnished with bibliographies and a good index. Is reviewed at length in the Dial for May 1, 1908.

30. Cole, P. R. Herbart and Froebel: An attempt at synthesis. 116 p. O. Columbia Univ. \$1. (Teachers coll. cont. to educ. no. 14.)

A review of the educational theories of Herbart and Froebel in the light of the philosophies which they imply. A comparison and interpretation of the theories of both which concern reality, consciousness, and character. An attempt to adjust certain differences of emphasis in their respective theories. 31. Coursault, J. H. The learning process; or educational theory implied in theory of knowledge. 99 p. O. Columbia Univ. \$1. (Teachers coll. cont. to educ. no. 16.)

Another attempt to get hold of and delimit the fundamental theory of education by detaching it from the great body of speculative philosophy. The theories of a dozen or more philosophic systems are considered, their educational implications indicated, and the resultant theory summarized.

- 32. Cox, C: F. What education is of most worth? (Bibliotheca sacra, Oct. 64:638-60.)
- Darroch, Alexander. (The) children; some educational problems. 133 p.
   Jack, 1s.

"This little book seeks to emphasize that the aim of all education is to secure the social efficiency of the future members of the state, and that this involves an endeavor to secure the physical, economic, and ethical efficiency of the children of the nation."

34. Draper, A. S. Addresses and papers. 132 p. O. N. Y. State Education dep't. Gratis.

CONTENTS.—Appointing officers and civil service regulations.—The nation's responsibilities concerning dependent peoples.—What next about Union University?—The schools and international peace.—The American type of university.—New York's obligations to her history.—Illiteracy in the United States.—A Federal educational plan needed.—National systems of education.—What the women's clubs may do for the schools.

- 35. Hadley, A. T. Economy in education. (N. Y. Associated academic principals. Proc. twenty-second ann. conference, p. 10-21.)
- 36. Harnack, Adolf, and Herrmann, Wilhelm. The moral and social significance of modern education. (In their Essays on the social gospel. Putnam, \$1.25. p. 92-141.)

An address by Dr. Harnack in 1902 before the Evangelical Social Congress in Dortmund.

37. Harper, J. W. Education and social life. 315 p. D. Pitman, 4s. 6d.

This book emphasizes the effect which judiciously organized and administered education may have on social progress, and indicates that this most important educational result is sometimes minimized by too much attention to utilitarianism.

38. Harris, W. T. Social culture in the form of education and religion. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 1-16.)

"The perennial continuance of the world-view of Christianity through the special form of social culture which belongs to the church is a necessary condition presupposed by the forms of social culture intrusted to the school."

- 39. Hayward, F. H. (The) meaning of education as interpreted by Herbart. 217 p. D. Ralph, Holland & Co., 2s.
- Jolly, William. Ruskin on education; some needed but neglected elements.
   167 p. S. Geo. Allen, 1s.

"A hortatory preachment, not a philosophical essay; a fervent and persuasive exposition."—London Journal of Education.

41. Lockyer, Norman. Education and national progress: essays and addresses, 1870–1905. 282 p. O. Macmillan, 5s.

The chapters have nearly all been previously printed in different places. Collected, they form a contribution to British educational history and policy for the period covered.



42. Magnus, Philip. The application of scientific method to education. (Nature, 22 Aug., 76: 434-9.)

Also in Science, n. s. 26:574-86.

Opening address before the educational science section of the British Association, August 1, 1907. An argument to show that while education itself may not yet fulfill all the conditions which would justify its claim to be classed as a science, the scientific method of investigation is most effective in dealing with educational problems. Illustrates from the reform of English elementary education.

 Matthews, F. H. The principles of intellectual education. 138 p. D. Cambridge Univ. press, 2s. 6d.

A dozen chapters on the theory and aims (exactness and flexibility) of education and the order in which each curriculum subject should be studied to get the greatest educational value. The point of view is distinctly Herbartian, and the tests constantly applied are interest and adaptability to correlation. The earliest formal education should be through the senses and largely by means of manual activities. Greek should be studied before Latin and modern languages before either.

44. Owen, W: B. Social education through the school. (School rev. Jan., 15:11-26.)

Paper read at nineteenth educational conference of the academies and high schools in relations with the University of Chicago.

The school being a social institution in that it is itself a society, Dean Owen proposes to enlarge the functions of the school to include the general social training of the child so far as his life in the school affords opportunity, and considers the general features of a practical way of going about the work.

- 45. Parker, S. C. Finding the individual. (Jour. of ped. June, 19: 193-213.) Are individual differences in human beings fundamental? Of what social importance are they? How may they be discovered and differentiated in formal education?
- 46. Reich, Emil. The constants of success—education. (In his Success in life. Duffield, \$1.50. p. 50-123.)

Comments on the value of education in active life.

Rooper, T. G. Selected writings; edited with a memoir by R. G. Tatton.
 p. O. Blackie, 7s. 6d.

These 19 papers have all been printed before, most of them in the author's volumes, School and Home Life, and Educational Studies and Addresses.

- 48. Storms, A. B. Democracy and education. (In N. E. A. Proc., p. 62-70.)

  The function and opportunities of education in a republic. Advantages and dangers from the commercial aspects of education and research.
- 49. Tyler, J. M. Growth and education. 294 p. D. Houghton, \$1.50.

A scientific study of the growth of the child, which argues for physical and moral as well as intellectual efficiency in education. To guide teacher and parent, the important facts of biology, evolution, and physiology are presented, which bear on the development of the child. There is a chapter on manual training.

870.1. PSYCHOLOGY AND EDUCATION.

See also No. 237.

- 50. Bennett, C. J. C. Formal discipline. 76 p. O. Teachers college, 50c. Some of the psychological bearings and effects of that part of the educational process which makes for mental discipline.
- 51. Keatinge, M. W. Suggestion in education. 202 p. O. A. & C. Black, 4s. 6d.

  A consideration of the practical results obtainable in teaching from the deliberate, extended, and studied use of the same psychological quality of "suggestion" that is employed in hypnotism.

52. Schwarz, Hermann. The study of experimental pedagogy in Germany. (School rev. Jan., 15:1-10; Sept., 15:535-43; Nov., 15:631-42.)

What psychology shows to be the most fruitful hours for class instruction and for study. Studies in fatigue as affecting the assignment of time in the school day. Value and effect of home study.

53. Urwick, W. E. The child's mind; its growth and training, being a short study of some processes of learning and teaching. 269 p. D. Longmans, \$1.50.

An attempt to set forth in simple and, so far as possible, untechnical language some results already obtained from a study of mind growth as an organic process, and to establish a clear and definite connection between those processes of learning which the mind possesses and the methods by which it should be taught and trained. The author's object is to found the teaching and training of children on the results of psychology and biology so far as these sciences have explained the development of children's minds.

#### 370.5. PERIODICALS.

Only new journals are included in this section. The current British journals are listed and characterized in each volume of the Schoolmaster's Yearbook. See also No. 212.

54. Bardeen, C. W. Educational journalism. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 506-514.)

Brief notes supplementing earlier and fuller data in N. E. A. Proceedings, 1893, and School Bulletin, volumes 19-20. The journals are named with editors and dates published. Estimates are seldom attempted.

55. Social education quarterly and proceedings of the Social education congress; edited by C. A. Scott. 6 Kirkland road, Cambridge station, Boston,\$2 per year.

Number one appeared in March, 1907, and the three numbers for that year are filled with the papers read at the Social Education Congress, November 30, 1906.

## 370.6. ASSOCIATIONS AND SOCIETIES.

The volumes of proceedings of certain American educational associations are noted in this section. A list of British societies with officers and brief sketch of each is found in the Schoolmaster's Yearbook for each year.

- 56. Association of American universities. Journal of proceedings and addresses of the eighth annual conference held in Cambridge, Mass. Nov. 23-24, 1906. 111 p. O. Assoc. No price.
- 57. Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the middle states and Maryland. Proceedings of the twentieth annual convention held at Philadelphia, Nov. 30-Dec. 1, 1906. 144 p. O. A. H. Quinn, Secy., Univ. of Pa. Philadelphia. No price.
- 58. Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the southern states. Proceedings of the thirteenth annual meeting, Birmingham, Ala. Nov. 7-8, 1907. 89 p. O. J. H. Kirkland, Sec. Vanderbilt Univ. Nashville, Tenn.
- 59. Catholic educational association. Report of the proceedings and addresses of the fourth annual meeting, Milwaukee, Wis., July 8-11, 1907. 396 p. O. Rev. F. W. Howard, Sec. 1651 E. Main St., Columbus, O. No price.

47405--08----3

- 60. Conference for education in the south. Proceedings of the tenth annual conference, Pinehurst, N. C. April 9-11, 1907. 300 p. O. S. C. Mitchell, Richmond college, Richmond, Va. No price.
- Congress of arts and sciences, universal exposition, St. Louis, 1904;
   edited by Howard J. Rogers. Volume 8, Education and religion. 493 p. O.
   Houghton \$2.50

The most important papers which were not separately published in 1904-5 have been entered in this bibliography under their proper subjects.

62. Educational associations. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 453-506.)

Brief accounts of the origin, growth, and work of 14 American associations. The information presented has never before been collected, and it is well to have these contributions.

- 63. Michigan schoolmasters' club. Proceedings at the forty-second meeting held in Ann Arbor, Mar. 27-30, 1907. 150 p. Q. Ann Arbor, 50c.
- 64. Monroe, W. S. Recent international congress at Liège. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 351-355.)
- 66. National education association. Journal of proceedings and addresses at the forty-fifth annual meeting held at Los Angeles, Cal., July 8-12, 1907, 1102 p. O. Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn., \$2.

Certain of the papers are separately noted under the proper headings in other parts of this bibliography. An account of the important business done at the Los Angeles meeting is found in the October-December number of the Forum, p. 228-33.

67. National educational association. Fiftieth anniversary volume 1857-1906. 949 p. O. Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minn., \$2.

Includes Proceedings and papers of the department of superintendence at Louisville, February, 1906; a notable report on instruction in library administration in normal schools; 13 important papers specially prepared for this volume by members in America and other lands; a chapter sketching the history of various educational associations, and a wealth of statistical and bibliographical matter relating to the N. E. A. itself. Many of the articles in this volume are indexed separately under proper subject in this bibliography.

68. National society for the scientific study of education. Sixth year book. 2 pts; O. Univ. of Chic. press, \$1.28.

Pt. 1.-Vocational studies for college entrance. Pt. 2.-The kindergarten.

69. National union of teachers. Thirty-seventh annual report, 1907 and list of members for 1906. 432 p. O. N. U. T. 1s.

A handbook giving statistics and regulations about the N. U. T., list of associations in the union, names and addresses of members, and much general information relating to English teachers.

- N. Y. (state) Associated academic principals. Proceedings of the twenty-second annual conference . . . 1906. 98 p. O. Albany, Educ. dept. No price. (Secondary education bulletin 36.)
- 71. N. Y. (state) Education department. Forty-fourth university convocation. 116 p. O. Alb. No price. (Department Bulletin 4.)

Certain of the papers are entered separately in this bibliography.

72. New York state association of school commissioners and superintendents. Proceedings of the 51st annual meeting at Cornell university, Ithaca, Oct. 3-5, 1906. 104 p. O. N. Y. State Education dep't. Gratis.

Concerned with the rural schools of New York State.

#### 870.7. THE STUDY OF EDUCATION.

See also material on normal schools in section 371.12.

73. Rein, Wilhelm. The place and office of pedagogy in the university. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 50-63.)

Examines the nature and contents of the formal science and art of pedagogy, and discusses its relations with other subjects and the function and purpose of teaching it.

# 370.9. HISTORY OF EDUCATION.

History of higher education and of individual colleges and universities is under section 378 and its geographical subdivisions. For matter on systems of secondary education, which is current chronicle to-day but will be history to-morrow, see section 379.5.

#### General.

Anderson, L. F. A study of mediæval schools and school work. (Ped. sem. June, 14:223-82.)

Author has brought together and grouped under numerous captions relating to history, curriculum, and methods of work many bits of educational information dug from books not commonly quoted in such a connection. Bibliography, p. 280-282.

75. ——Study of the prototypes of the modern non-professional school among the Greeks and Romans. (Ped. sem. Mar., 14:1-38.)

Description of early Greek and Roman education, giving the character and methods of instruction. Bibliography, p. 37-38.

 McEvoy, T. J. Epitome of history and principles of education. 267 p. D. Author, 306 Fulton st., Brooklyn. No price.

Not a connected narrative or history, but 47 syllabl arranged in approximate chronologic order; apparently designed to help teachers or normal students prepare for examination.

77. Turner, William. Irish teachers in the Carolingian revival of learning. (Catholic univ. bulletin, July, 13:382-99; Oct. 562-81.)

An account of the literary activity of the Irish scholars of the ninth and tenth centuries, based upon manuscripts found in the libraries of Germany, France, and Italy.

 Walsh, J. J. The thirteenth—greatest of centuries. 436 p. O. Catholic summer school press, \$2.50.

Lectures delivered at the school. Chapters 2-7 and 9 discuss mediæval universities and their work, the arts and crafts, technical schools, popular education, books, and libraries.

#### Alaska.

 Jackson, Sheldon. Report on education in Alaska. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Reports for 1905. 1:267-91; 1906. 1:237-55.)

The usual annual statistical reviews, with chapter on the Government reindeer herd.

#### Canada.

80. Coleman, H. T. J. Public education in Upper Canada. 120 p. O. Columbia Univ. \$1. (Teachers coll. cont. to educ. no. 15.)

A selective, descriptive, and interpretative study of public education only in what is now the Province of Ontario, from 1791 to 1841, with a brief added chapter enumerating tendencies since the latter date. It covers much the same period; is not so broad in scope as Doctor Ross's school system of Ontario, but goes more thoroughly into cause, effect, and significance of events.

## Europe.

81. Great Britain—Education, Board of. Schools public and private in the north of Europe. 136 p. O. (Special reports on educational subjects. v. 17.)

Prepared by J. S. Thornton, as result of fourteen years' acquaintance with and study of the schools of Norway, Sweden, Finland, and Denmark. As Gilchrist traveling scholar in 1900 and again in 1903 the author visited Scandinavia and studied the school systems at first hand with this monograph in mind. It discusses secondary education only, and dwells upon the hearty cooperation between public and private schools, the uniform examinations system common to both, and the training of secondary school teachers under masters of selected secondary schools.

#### France.

 Education in France. (U. 8.—Education, Comm'r of. Reports for 1905. 1:57-86; 1906, 1:19-34.)

The usual annual surveys of current educational movements, with so much of retrospect as clearness demands. Covers primary, secondary, and higher education and gives many statistics.

83. Friedel, V. H. Problems of secondary education in France. (School rev. Mar., 15:169-83.)

Author is an official in the French education department. An account of the main features of the reforms in the reorganization of secondary education in 1902.

.84. Great Britain—Education, Board of. The education and training of the French primary school teacher. 222 p. Q. (Special reports on educational subjects. v. 18.)

More fully described under No. 141.

 Levasseur, P. E. On the developments and changes in primary teaching in France during the Third Republic (1870–1906). (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 408–417.)

## Germany.

86. Paulsen, Friedrich. The past and the future of German education. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 430-445.)

A translation of Book 4, Chapter 3, of Das deutsche Bildungswesen.

#### Great Britain.

87. Dunraven, Windham, Thomas Wyndham Quin, Earl of. Educational chaos. (In his The outlook in Ireland. Dutton, \$3. p. 111-37.)

An account of present conditions, prejudices, and denominational feeling about Irish education, with some positive suggestions for betterment.

- 88. Education in Great Britain and Ireland, 1904—6. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 1:1-17.)
- 89. Godfrey, Elizabeth, pscud. English children in the olden time. 336 p. O. Methuen, 7s. 6d.

The chapters on Nurture in king's courts; Concerning pedagogues; Educational theories; The genteel academy and the dame school, and The superior parent offer much information about the English education of the fifteenth to the eighteenth centuries.

90. Strong, John. The development of secondary education in Scotland. (School rev. Oct., 15: 594-607; Nov., 15: 671-83; Dec., 15: 718-30.)

Traces its development from 1100 to the present. Gives a diagrammatic scheme of present Scottish education.

# Greece.

See also No. 201.

 Freeman, K. J. Schools of Helias; an essay on the practice and theory of ancient Greek education from 600 to 300 B. C. 299 p. O. Macmillan, \$1.90.

A young Englishman, scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, senior chancellor's medalist, and who died at the age of 24, prepared this volume with a view to his candidature for a fellowship of Trinity. Competent critics assert that it has a substantive value as presenting results of first-hand research, and that it brings together conveniently and accurately the materials for studying the subject.

#### India.

92. Public education in British India. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 1:123-40.)

Reviewing the years 1902-5.

#### Italy.

93. Monroe, W. S. Progress of education in Italy. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906, 1:73-90.)

## Japan.

94. Kikerchi, D. Japanese education. (Nineteenth cent. June, 61: 1012-23.) An explanation of the circumstances which led to the issue of the Imperial rescript on education in 1890.

## Liberia.

95. Ellis, G. W. Education in Liberia. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1905. 1:111-29.)

The author is United States secretary of legation at Monrovia.

#### Philippines.

96. Educational problems in the dependencies. (Annals Amer. acad. July, 30:65-89.)

An educational policy for Spanish-American civilization—M. G. Brumbaugh. Education and social progress in the Philippines—I). P. Barrows. Position and work of the Roman Catholic Church in the Philippines—T. B. Lawier.

## Porto Rico.

 Lindsay, S. M. Inauguration of the American school system in Porto Rico. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1905. 1:203-344.)

A résumé of social and educational conditions in Porto Rico before American occupation, a brief sketch of the rather discouraging attempts of the military authorities to organize a new system, and a more extended account of the work done under the civil government since 1900. Doctor Lindsay, from his personal experience, reviews the work of Porto Rican and American teachers, the provision for native students in the United States, and the history of educational legislation for the island, and ventures some comments on the future.

#### Rome.

See also No. 201.

98. Teetgen, A. B. Education in the fifth century. (In her Life and times of the Empress Pulcheria. Sonnenschein, 10s. 6d., p. 37-47.)

Describes the education of a patrician girl in Rome,

#### Russia.

99. Simkhovitch, V. G. History of the school in Russia. (Educ. rev. May, 33:486-522.)

Shows that while some attention has been paid from the end of the 17th century to professional, higher, and secondary education, elementary education is still sadly neglected.

Servia.

100. Low, D. H. Education in Servia. (Jour. of educ. (Lond.) Nov., n. s., 28:736-39.)

Outlines the organization of elementary, secondary, and special schools.

## South America.

101. Baxter, Sylvester. School and college in Brazil and Argentina. (Outlook, 10 Aug., 86: 780-7.)

Turkey.

102. Monroe, W. S. Education in Turkey. (In his Turkey and the Turks, Page, \$3. p. 161-81.)

Sketches the present facilities furnished by the Turkish Government and by schools founded and maintained by foreigners or by missionaries. The censorship of books and newspapers is described.

#### United States.

See also section 378, subhead United States, section 379.15, and section 379.5, subhead United States.

103. Brown, E. E. Fifty years of American education. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 327-341.)

A topical review of history, movements, tendencies, and accomplishments,

104. Burns, J. A. Catholic colonial schools in the French possessions. (Catholic univ. bulletin, Apr., 13:175-90.)

Includes a description of the first parochial school for girls in the United States, founded at New Orleans 1727 by the Ursuline sisters.

105. —— Early Jesuit schools in Maryland. (Catholic univ. bulletin, July, 13:361-81.)

States that the arrival of the Jesuits in Maryland marks the beginning of Catholic educational work in the English colonies.

106. —— Early mission schools of the Franciscaus. (Catholic univ. bulletin, Jan., 13:25-43.)

An account of the earliest schools in the United States, which preceded by four years the oldest schools in the thirteen original colonies. Includes schools in New Mexico, Texas, Florida, and California.

- 107. Gilman, D. C. Five great gifts to education. (Outlook, July, 86: 648-57.) Includes brief description of gifts made by George Peabody, John F. Slater, John D. Rockefeller, Andrew Carnegle, and Mrs. Russell Sage.
- 108. Johnson, Clifton. The country school. 158 p. O. Crowell, \$1.50.

  This book is an almost verbatim reprint (with one very short added chapter on schoolhouse entertainments) of the author's Country School in New England, published by Appleton in 1893.
- 109. Meriwether, Colyer. Our colonial curriculum, 1607-1776. 301 p. O. Capital pub. co., \$2.

"Devoted to the study of what was actually taught then and how it was actually done. All of the subjects, in all grades of institutions, are taken up in order and treated so as to show as nearly as possible what was the aim, what was the method, and what was the result of teaching then."

110. Monroe, W. S. History of the Pestalozzian movement in the United States. 244 p. O. Bardeen. \$2.

"The purpose of the present work is to place on record the labors of a score of men who caught something of Pestalozzi's insight and enthusiasm and who sought to bring about the adaptation of his reforms to conditions in the new world." Preface.

The most important chapters are those on the work of William McClure and Joseph Neel. A useful and extensive bibliography is appended.

111. U. S.—Education, Bureau of. Reports of the commissioner of education for the years ending June 30, 1905, and June 30, 1906. 4 v. O. Government printing office.

These volumes are smaller than usual and more largely statistical. It is gratifying to note that the statistics are more nearly up to date, and that it is still possible to devote half of volume 1 of each year to the reviews of educational progress in other lands and to the selected articles on current topics which have so long made this report of special interest and value.

112. Young, E. F. The educational progress of two years, 1905-07. (In N. E. A. Proc. 383-405.)

Deals with American conditions and events only. A more informal chronicle of current educational happenings is furnished by O. H. Lang to each number of the Forum.

#### Iowa.

113. Abernethy, Alonzo. History of Iowa Baptist Schools. 340 p. D. Woolverton pub. co., Osage, Ia. \$1.25.

The author writes at first hand from a life of over 50 years in lowa and personal acquaintance with the schools and workers described.

114. Buffum, H. S. Federal and state aid to education in Iowa. (Iowa journal of history and politics. Oct. 1906, 4:554-98; Jan.-July, 1907, 5:3-45, 147-92, 311-25.)

# Michigan.

115. The beginnings of the educational system. Educational progress. (Utley, H. M., and Cutcheon, B. M., eds. Michigan as a province, territory and state. \$20 for 4 v. vol. 3, chap. 15 and vol. 4, chap. 20.)

#### Pennsylvania.

116. Burns, J. A. Catholic colonial schools in Pennsylvania. (Catholic univ. bulletin, Oct., 13:582-600.)

A description of some of the most prominent schools and teachers from the time of their establishment by Jesuit missionaries from Maryland.

## Texas.

117. Hartmann, C. G. A study in school supervision with special reference to rural school conditions in Texas. 180 p. Q. (Bulletin of the Univ. of Texas, no. 90.)

# 370.92. BIOGRAPHY.

Who's Who in America is a current directory of living educators; Who's Who and the Schoolmaster's Year Book for English educators. The N. E. A. list of members who have died during each year is printed in each annual volume of *Proceedings*.

118. Mellen, G. F. New England college presidents in the south. (New Eng. mag. June, 36:468-80.)

Brief sketches of prominent New Englanders who administered colleges of the old South.

119. Brooks, Charles. Albree, John. Charles Brooks and his work for normal schools. 31 p. O. Author (Swampscott, Mass.), gratis.

Reprinted from the Historical Register, vol. 10, no. 1, Jan., 1907, published by the Medford Historical Society.

 Davidson, Thomas. Knight, William. Memorials of Thomas Davidson the wandering scholar, collected and edited by William Knight. 241 p. O. Ginn, \$1.25.

Twenty-one chapters; recollections, sketches, estimates of Davidson by friends; selections from his letters, lectures, and writings.

- 121. Guarino de Verona. McCormick, P. J. Two Catholic medieval educators. II. Guarino de Verona. (In Catholic univ. bulletin, April, 13: 232-49.)
- 122. Herbart, Johann Friedrich. Compayré, Gabriel. Herbart and education by instruction. 142 p. D. Crowell, 90c.

Translation of a volume in series Les grands éducateurs, published in Paris in 1904. Save for a brief biographic chapter and one on the spread and influence of Herbart's work, the book is a critical synopsis of his systems of psychology, education, and morals.

123. Krüsi, Hermann. Krüsi, Hermann. Recollections of my life. An autobiographical sketch supplemented by extracts from his personal records and a review of his literary productions together with selected essays, arranged and ed. by Elizabeth Sheldon Alling. 439 p. O. The Grafton press, \$2.50.

One thousand copies printed.

124. Magill, Edward Hicks. Magill, E. H. Sixty-five years in the life of a teacher 1841-1906. 323 p. D. Houghton. \$1.50.

Record of a long, varied, and interesting career of an ex-president of Swarthmore College and long a prime mover for advancement of higher education in Pennsylvania. Contains an account of the early history of the elective system.

125. Mann, Horace. Compayré, Gabriel. Horace Mann and the public school in the United States. 134 p. D. Crowell, 90c.

A brief biography which may rank with Hinsdale's Horace Mann and the Common School Revival in the United States.

126. Pestalozzi, Johann Heinrich. Compayré, Gabriel. Pestalozzi and elementary education. 139 p. D. Crowell, 90c.

First published in French in 1902, now first translated. Characterized by sympathetic treatment.

- 127. Rooper, Thomas Godolphin. Tatton, R. G. Memoir of T. G. Rooper. (In Rooper, Selected writings. Blackie, 7s. 6d. pref. p. 15-94.)
- 128. Rousseau, Jean Jacques. Compayré, Gabriel. Jean Jacques Rousseau and education from nature. 120 p. D. Crowell, 90c.

Translation of a French monograph first published in 1901. A synoptic and critical sketch.

129. Spencer, Herbert. Compayré, Gabriel. Herbert Spencer and scientific education. 119 p. D. Crowell, 90c.

First published in France in 1901, and in translation forms a most considerable critique of Mr. Spencer as an educator only.

# 371. TEACHERS, METHODS, DISCIPLINE.

#### 871.1. TEACHERS.

Material on teachers as distinct from teaching is included in this section. Methods of teaching is section 371.3.

130. Lang, O. H. The status of the teacher in the United States: Observations of a German educational expert. (Forum, July, 39: 60-71.)

A review of the book Volksschule und Lehrerbildung der Vereinigten Staaten . . . written by Dr. F. Kuypers, a member of the German educational commission that spent seven weeks in this country in 1904. Author discusses feminization of our schools, equal pay for equal work, compulsory education, and the fact that there seemed to him to be no real profession of teaching in this country.

131. New York City teachers' association. Report of the committee on the promotion of teachers. 75 p. O. The ass'n, gratis.

A study of the methods of promotion in over 50 cities, with separate accounts of the systems in New York, Chicago, St. Louis, Boston, London, and Baltimore.

132. Palmer, G: H. The ideal teacher. (Atlantic, Apr., 99: 433-42.)

Declares that "teaching as a trade is poor and disappointing business, but entered as a profession there are few employments more satisfying."

133. Plan for official advisory organization of the teaching force of Chicago. (Elem. school teacher, Feb., 7:305-10.)

Report of the subcommittee of the school management committee of the board of education of Chicago, appointed to report upon the whole subject of an advisory organization of the teaching body. The resulting plan provides for a representation of the teachers when educational matters are considered by the Chicago school board. See also editorial in same number, p. 361-367.

134. Spaulding, F. E. The unassigned teacher in the schools. (School rev. Mar., 15: 201-16.)

Describes the work of the teacher without a class, with special mention of experiences in Newton, Mass. Devotes much attention to a discussion of the evils of rigid grading.

135. Tuell, H. E. The public school teacher and promotional examinations. (Educ. Dec., 28: 217-23.)

Comments upon the new system of promotional examinations for teachers in Boston and states facts to prove that ability to pass a required examination can not be a satisfactory test of a teacher's merit.

136. Van Storm, Ashley. Minimum qualifications of the elementary teacher. (In N. E. A. Proc. p. 239-52.)

# 371.12. TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

See also section 370.7.

137. Bolton, F. E. The preparation of high school teachers: what they do receive and what they should receive. (School rev. Feb., 15:97-122.)

Discusses existing State legislation designed to secure good high school teachers. There is great lack of uniformity in requirements for teaching and of effective laws to eliminate poor teachers. American standards are compared with German.

47405-08-4

138. Bolton, F. E. The relation of the department of education to other departments in colleges and universities. (Jour. of ped. Dec. 1906-Mar. 1907, 19:137-76.)

"An attempt is made to show clearly the proportions which the work has assumed, class of students accepted, the kind of work prepared for, the intimate relation which the department bears toward the rest of the institution, the relation to the State, and the distribution of the work within the department." Many of the data presented were secured by a questionnaire. See also No. 145. below.

- 139. Chabot, Charles. The professional training of teachers in France. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 176-91.)
  Address at the 8t. Louis exposition, 1904.
- 140. Great Britain—Education, Board of. . . . General report on the instruction and training of pupil-teachers, 1903-1907, with historical introduction. Presented to both houses of Parliament. 219 p. Q. ([Gt. Brit. Parliament. Papers by command] Cd. 3582.)

The 30-page historical introduction is of special value.

141. ———— The education and training of the French primary school teacher. 222 p. O. (Special reports on educational subjects. v. 18.)

CONTENTS.—Curricula of French higher primary schools, pp. 1-82; Life in a French higher primary school, by A. M. Saville, pp. 83-124; Summary of official regulations affecting the training and position of teachers in State primary schools in France, by H. E. Matheson; The French training college system, by B. Dumville, pp. 159-222.

Farrington: The Public Primary School System of France, 1906, while covering much the same ground, is fuller in historical material than the present volume and less detailed in presentation of curricula and their contents. The professions of primary and secondary teacher in France are entirely distinct, and the slight opportunities for the pupil-teacher contrast strongly with English and American methods.

142. Ladd, A. J. École normale supérieure; an historical sketch. 61 p. O. Herald pub. co., Grand Forks, N. D. 50c.

Doctor's dissertation, Michigan, 1904.

143. National education association. Report of the committee of seventeen on the Professional preparation of high-school teachers. (In N. E. A. Proc. p. 523-668.)

The introduction (15 pages) was published in School Review, Sept., 1907, and the entire report is also published separately.

144. Ruedeger, W: C. Recent tendencies in the normal schools of the United States. (Educ. rev. Mar., 33:271-87.)

A comparative study, based chiefly on data obtained from 51 pairs of normal school catalogues, ten years apart, showing changes in normal school work and conditions as to equipment, students, and contents of curriculum.

145. Sutton, W. S. The organization of the department of education in relation to the other departments in colleges and universities. (Jour. of ped. Dec. 1906-Mar. 1907, 19:81-136.)

An historical survey of the professional education of teachers is followed by a discussion of its present status in America, based upon responses to a questionnaire and disclosing great variety in the plans of organization in 42 institutions. Brief mention is made of the study of education in leading foreign universities.

Two appendixes are:

A. Table showing courses in education at German universities, 1905-6.

B. Historical data concerning evolution of the professional education of teachers in American colleges and universities, with plans for the organization of educational work therein.  $\Box$ 

#### 371.16. TEACHERS' SALARIES.

146. Association of men teachers and principals of the city of New York. The grounds of opposition to the White bill. 48 p.

During its 1907 session the legislature of the State of New York gave much attention to a bill (senate 1218) providing for an increase in the salaries of certain' women teachers in the schools of New York City. When the bill reached Governor Hughes he vetoed it, and his objections are printed in full in Educational Review, September, 1907, pp. 211-213. The above pamphlet prints the text of the bill and some arguments against "equal pay for equal work," regardless of sex. The bill was reintroduced in the session of 1908. but failed of passage.

147. The compensation of college teachers. (In Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the middle states and Maryland. Proc. of twentieth annual convention, 1906. p. 18-44.)

> Papers by J. D. Moffatt, J. B. Fletcher, and E. E. Hale, jr., with discussions by W. A. Lamberton and Thomas Fell.

- 148. Cooley, E. G. The basis of grading teachers' salaries. (In N. E. A. Proc. p. 94-103.)
- 149. Cotton, F. A. Teachers' salaries and how affected by the operation of the minimum-salary law. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 132-141.)

The author, State superintendent for Indiana, describes the law in that State and how it works. In the discussion similar laws in Pennsylvania and West Virginia are described.

150. Fletcher, J. B. The compensation of college teachers. (Educ. rev. Jan., 33:77-86.)

> Paper read before annual meeting of the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland at Philadelphia, November, 1906.

> Shows that the responsibility for reform in the matter of the compensation of college teachers rests with the faculty.

- 151. Hutchins, H. B. Should men bearing the same title in any institution receive the same pay. (In Association of American universities. Journal of proceedings and addresses of eighth annual conference, 1907. p. 92-99.
- 152. McAndrew, William. Where education breaks down. (Educ. rev. Jan., 33:11-23.)

A resume of the salary conditions among teachers, comparing them with those in other callings. The author complains of a lack of professional enthusiasm and on this point is answered by Isabella M. Blake in same volume. pp. 522-526.

153. Stillman, J. M. Relations of salary to title in American universities. (In Association of American universities, Journal of proceedings and addresses of eighth annual conference, 1907. p. 72-91.)

Also in Science, February 25, pp. 241-259.

Concludes that a maximum efficiency of university work and a minimum of administrative difficulty resulting from inequalities in pay in the same grade will be attained by a minimum or normal salary for each grade by reasonable increases dependent upon length of efficient service and with freedom to recognize unusual ability or distinguished service as the requirements of the case may demand. Article closes with quotations from answers to a circular letter sent to presidents and faculty members.

154. Tanner, A. E. Salaries of women teachers in institutions of collegiate rank. (Ass'n of collegiate alumnæ. Special bull. Ser. 3, no. 15.)

Discusses maximum and minimum salaries in 14 American women's colleges.

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155. Van Sickle, J. H. What should be the basis for the promotion of teachers and the increase of teachers' salaries? (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 177–183.)

Describes the new arrangement in Baltimore.

## 371.17. PENSIONS FOR TEACHERS.

156. The best means of introducing the pension system into American universities. Discussion. (In Association of American universities. Journal of proceedings and addresses of eighth annual conference, 1907. p. 64-71.)

The Carnegie Foundation is the theme.

157. Carnegie foundation for the advancement of teaching. Papers relating to the admission of state institutions to the system of retiring allowances of the Carnegie foundation. 45 p. Q. (Bulletin no. 1.)

As the Foundation bases the distribution of its pensions on the qualifications of institutions, not individuals, it is necessarily concerned with the organization and curricula of those institutions which wish, to share in its funds. This Bulletin is the first of a series which will furnish data as to entrance requirements, financial resources, and equipment of many American universities and colleges.

158. —— Second annual report of the president and treasurer. 124 p. Q. 576 Fifth ave., N. Y. No price.

It is remarkable how rapidly and how intelligently the work of this great foundation has progressed in two years. The standardizing of American institutions for higher education is a by-product of the financial work of the foundation. The statistical and historical material included in this report is of reference value.

159. Jastrow, Joseph. Advancement of teaching. (No. Amer. rev. 7 Oct., 186:213-24.)

Commends the spirit of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, but opposes the exclusion of State universities. Believes that increase of salary would be more effective in the advancement of teaching than the most liberal of pension systems.

160. Keyes, C: H. Teachers' pensions. (In N. E. A. Proc. p. 103-08.)

Statement of reasons why pensions should be provided for teachers in public schools, and account of some ways in which the matter is managed in the United States.

871.2. ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION OF THE SCHOOL; THE SUPERINTENDENT.

See also section 379.15 and the papers read at the meeting of the N. E. A. Department of Superintendence, and printed in the annual volume of Proceedings.

161. Allen, W. H. School efficiency. (In his Efficient democracy. Dodd, Mead, \$1.50. p. 113-41.)

A study of the statistical method as basis for intelligent progress in conducting the school. Shows what is lost in school efficiency by lack of proper methods of record and later use of such records as correctives and guides.

162. Jackman, W. S. Relation of school organization to instruction. (Pop. sci. mo. Feb., 70: 120-33.)

Paper read before the Social Education Congress, Boston, November, 1906, Indicates some of the most important changes needed in present school organization in order that the school may be operated as a social institution.

# 371.23. VACATION SCHOOLS.

163. Great Britain—Education, Board of. School excursions and vacation schools. 89 p. O. (Special reports on educational subjects, v. 21.)

In a brief historical introduction school excursions are traced back to the traveling scholars of the Middle Ages. The French Alpine club and the holiday home at Contrexéville are briefly noticed, after which follow chapters on vacation schools, country schools for backward children, and school journeys. These are mainly descriptions of the methods and work of specific examples, chiefly in England. The volume is the work of J. E. G. de Montmorency.

#### 371.25. CLASSIFICATION OF PUPILS.

See also No. 134.

164. Garber, J: P. A rational system of classification and promotion. (Educ. Jan., 27: 288-302.)

Discusses advantages and disadvantages of several of the commoner methods of classification, states some of the fundamental principles which should underlie a rational system of grading, and notes certain failacies connected with classification and promotion.

#### 371.28, PROMOTIONS.

165. Hartwell, C: S. Liberating the lower education. (School rev. June, 15:436-58.)

Discusses quality, not quantity, for promotion, and three-year high school courses; giving tabulated statistics, compiled from questionnaires sent to various classes of educators.

166. —— Promotion by subject and three-year courses. (School rev. Mar., 15:184-96.)

Shows some of the evils of rigid grading and quotes actual experiences to prove that flexibility in grading is entirely practicable. While the past tendency has been to sacrifice the child to the system, it is being more generally recognized that system must yield to the child.

## 871.3. METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

For methods in special subjects, see section 375 and its subdivisions. See also Nos. 33, 37, 43.

167. Adamson, J: W., ed. (The) practice of instruction; a manual of method, general and special. 512 p. D. National Society's Depository, 4s. 6d.

The "general" chapters fill 125 pages, treating the theory of education with emphasis on Herbart's psychology and discussing the curriculum as a whole. Then 8 chapters as follows: Religious instruction—A. C. Headlam. The mother tongue—J. W. Adamson. Geography—A. J. Herbertson. History—M. A. Howard. Mathematics—A. H. Baker. Natural science—T. P. Nunn. Latin and Greek—W. H. D. Rouse. Modern languages—W. M. Poole.

168. Bagley, W: C. Classroom management; its principles and technique. 322 p. D. Macmillan, \$1.25.

"The author intends his work for the student of education in normal schools and colleges who is preparing for elementary teaching. He has gathered his data from observing good teachers, from text-books, from his own experience, and from psychology. The routine factors of class-room management start with the daily programme, punctuality, hygiene, order, discipline, and penalties. Attention he treats under several laws and then discusses the technique of class instruction, giving a whole chapter to the Batavia system. He tells how he would test results, dispose of the teacher's time, treats of the teacher's relations to the principal, supervisor, and superintendent, and concludes with the ethics of school craft," Pedagogical Seminary.

169. Chapin, C: S. Departmental teaching in the grammar grades. (Educ. Apr., 27:505-14.)

Considers the whole subject still in the experimental stage. Cites the chief arguments, pro and con, followed by a statement of the conditions necessary for success.

- 170. **Harris, W. T.** How the superintendent may correct defective classwork and make the work of the recitation teach the pupil how to prepare his lesson properly. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 341-351.)
- 171. Kilpatrick, V. E. The adaptation of departmental teaching to elementary schools. (Educ. rev. Apr., 33:356-67.)

An examination of the principles underlying departmental teaching is followed by a detailed statement of how it may be undertaken by any elementary school.

172. Mahony, J: J. The problem of the poor pupil. (Educ. Dec., 28: 197-212.)

Describes the Batavia system of individual instruction and flexible grading schemes of several cities, and acknowledges that plenty of valuable experimenting has been done, but lack of cooperation has led to no educational doctrine. What is most needed now is an attempt through an intelligent application of pupil study, through a close cooperation between the home and the school, to discover just why the pupil is poor.

173. Sachs, Julius. The departmental organization of secondary schools. (Educ. Apr., 27: 484-96.)

The proper conception of departmental organization in the high school involves much more than mere specialization. The hope of a real departmental organization must lie in the broad training and accurate attainments of the teachers.

- 174. Theobald, H. C. (The) Filipino teacher's manual. 260 p. D. World Book Co., \$1.50.
- 175. Winterburn, R. V. Methods in teaching; being the Stockton methods in elementary schools. 355 p. D. Macmillan, \$1.25.

The Stockton methods are those used in the schools of Stockton, Cal., and attention was called to them by striking exhibits at the St. Louis and Portland expositions. Hundreds of letters to the Stockton school board asking for details determined them to print this book, which is edited by a former supervisor of English and history. "The Stockton methods seek to employ all the mental faculties of the child simultaneously in order to accomplish their union as soon as possible."

## 371.42. MANUAL TRAINING.

See also a chapter in No. 49.

176. Council of supervisors of the manual arts. Yearbooks 1906-7. v. 6-7. The Sec'y. Hastings-on-Hudson, N. Y. \$3 each.

The papers treat chiefly of the actual work in the school in drawing, design, woodwork, and specific handicrafts or trades.

- 177. The development of an adequate course of study in manual training for elementary grades. (In N. E. A. Proc. 760-78.)
  - 1. From the point of view of the teacher of manual arts, by  $\Lambda$ . Ahrens.
  - 2. From the point of view of child study, by F. B. Dresslar.
  - 3. From the point of view of the school superintendent, by C: II. Keyes.
- 178. Harvey, L. D. Manual training in the grades. (Elem. school teacher, Mar., 7:390-407.)

Emphasizes and estimates the value of manual training to the individual, and favors its use in all of the 12 grades.

#### 871.5. GOVERNMENT. DISCIPLINE. PUNISHMENT.

See also No. 210, below.

- 179. **Griffiths, F. P.** Student self-government at the University of California. (University of California chronicle, July, 9:240–55.)
- 180. Thompson, W. O. Self-government by students in school and college. (Social education quarterly, Mar. 1: 41-53.)

#### 371.52. ATTENDANCE.

181. Thorndike, E. L. The elimination of pupils from school. 63 p. O. Government printing office. U. S.—Education Bureau, Bulletin 4, 1907.)

A statistical study, carefully done and accurately grounded, of what pupils stay in school, how long they stay, what grades they reach, and why they leave. The significance of the results for the immediate problems of school administration are briefly suggested.

#### 371.55. CORPORAL PUNISHMENT.

182. Du Bois, Patterson. The failure and immorality of corporal punishment. (In his Culture of Justice. Dodd, Mead, 75c. p. 200-27.)

#### 871.6. SCHOOL BUILDINGS AND FURNITURE.

183. Boston—School committee. Report of committee of oculists and electricians on the artificial lighting and color schemes of school buildings. 20 p. O. (Boston School Doc. 1907, no. 14.)

Gives chart of colors recommended for walls; of location of lights in standard schoolroom; cuts and full description of the tungsten-light fixtures recommended.

184. Olsen, J. W. Rural school architecture. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 141-148.)

Two plans and elevations are given for one and two room buildings costing, respectively, \$800 and \$2,800.

185. Two recent high schools. (Architects and builders' magazine, Mar. n. s. 8:251-65.)

Includes description and plans of the Jersey City high school and the De Witt Clinton high school, New York City.

186. Wisconsin—Dept. of education. The school beautiful, by Maud Barnett. 94 p. Q. C. P. Cary, state superintendent, Madison.

Minute, practical suggestions and directions for securing more attractive and healthful school buildings and grounds. Helpful plans and pictures.

371.64. SCHOOL LIBRARIES; LIBRARIES AND SCHOOLS.

See also the papers printed in the N. E. A. Proc., pp. 961-982, under the library department.

- 187. Axon, W. E. A. The library in relation to knowledge and life. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 203-15.)
- 188. Biagi, Guido. The library—its past and future. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 216-29.)

After sketching the rise and development of libraries, Doctor Biagi forecasts the future, which, he thinks, will be particularly marked by international cooperation, the use of photography, the gramophone, and a greatly increased use of the card.

- Crunden, F. M. The library in education. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 195–202.)
- 190. MacDowell, L. I. A public school library system. (Educ. rev. Nov., 34:374-84.)

Contains practical suggestions for the organization of a successful school library. Describes the systems in New York City, Utica, Newark, Baltimore, Chicago, and St. Louis. Lays special stress on the advantages of class libraries.

#### 371.7. SCHOOL HYGIENE.

An important second triennial congress on school hygiene was held in London, August 5-10, 1907. Its papers have not been published, but accounts of the meeting are in Pedagogical Seminary, December, 1907; Nineteenth Century. September, 1907, pp. 388-394, and London Journal of Education for September. 1907, pp. 607-610.

- 191. Ainge, T. S. The ventilation of school buildings. (Jour. Mich. med. soc. June, 6: 271-80.)
- 192. Clay, Arthur. School feeding question in England. (Charities, 19 Jan., 17:699-707.)

Brief account of the various recent English experiments with this work. Verdict rather against its usefulness.

193. Cronin, J: J. Doctor in the public school. (Rev. of Rev. Apr., 35: 433-40.)

Startling results of rigid medical inspection in New York City.

Douglas, C. C. The laws of health; a handbook on school hygiene. 240 p.
 Blackie, 3s.

Principally physiological.

- 195. Elkington, J. S. C. Health in the school; or hygiene for teachers. 192 p.D. Blackie, 2s.
- McMillan, Margaret. Labour and childhood. 205 p. D. Sonnenschein,
   3s. 6d.

Chapter 9, "The hygiene of instruction," states the case for medical inspection. Chapter 10, "The school doctor in other lands," is an account of what has been done in Germany, mainly in Wiesbaden, while chapter 11, "The school doctor at home," tells what has not been done in England, and why and how more should be done.

The book is not about child labor, but a study of education through labor, with emphasis upon the part which good health plays in it.

197. New York committee on physical welfare of school children. An examination of the home conditions of 1400 New York school children found by school physicians to have physical defects. (Amer. statistical ass'n. Quarterly publications. June. 10:271-316.)

Present the startling conclusion that if the 1,400 children examined are representative American school children there are 12,000,000 children in the United States so defective physically as to need attention. A comprehensive plan of medical inspection and instruction in hygiene is given. This investigation is a result of the now famous Associated Press item from Washington in 1905 that 70,000 New York children went breakfastless to school.

- 198. Richards, H. M. The medical inspection of school children. (Jour. Royal Sanitary Inst. July, 28:251-63.)
- 199. Scott, W. D. Sacrifice of the eyes of school children. (Pop. sci. mo. Oct., 71:303-12.)

Excessive destruction begins several years earlier than was formerly the case in America, and earlier than is still the case in Germany and other foreign

countries. Badly lighted schoolrooms come in for their share of blame, but author believes the fact that our infants are reading more books both in and out of school is largely responsible for the poor eyesight of children.

371.73. PHYSICAL TEXINING; GYMNASTICS; ATHLÈTICS.

See also papers printed in the N. E. A. Proc., pp. 925-950.

- 200. Derby, R. A. College athletics. (Outlook, 5 Oct., 87: 254-8.)
  - Protests against present conditions, and urges the adoption of a new system which will lessen rivalry in intercollegiate athletics and generalize the interest.
- Fuld, L. F. Physical education in Greece and Rome. (Amer. phys. educ. rev. Mar., 12: 1-14.)
- 202. Grant, P. S. Physical deterioration among the poor in America. (No. Amer. rev. 1 Feb., 184: 254-67.)
- 203. Hetherington, C. W. Analysis of problems in college athletics. (Amer. phys. educ. rev. June 12:154-81.)
- 204. Johnson, G. E. Education by plays and games. 234 p. D. Ginn, 90c. This revision of a "questionnaire" study in the Pedagogical Seminary in 1894 is a useful and practical contribution from the superintendent of playgrounds, recreation parks, and vacation schools in Pittsburg.
- 205. Lowman, G. S. Regulation and control of competitive sport in the secondary schools in the United States. (Amer. phys. educ. rev. Sept., 12: 241-55; Dec., 12: 307-23.)

A summary of the answers to a questionnaire sent to 881 schools. The September issue includes public schools and the December issue priyate schools and academies. Author concludes that athletics in academies are in healthier condition and better managed than athletics in public high schools.

206. Newcomb, Simon. University athletics. (No. Amer. rev. 21 June, 185: 353-64.)

Condemns present system of athletics. Believes physical development of our students will be best promoted by entirely abandoning intercollegiate contests and making games of strength purely local and personal affairs.

207. Sargent, D. A. The academic value of college athletics. (Educ. Feb., 27:317-25.)

Advocates the recognition of the educational value of physical training and athletics as a remedy for many of the present abuses and evils. Suggests making them essential features of the college curriculum with due academic credit.

208. Stewardson, L. C. Physical training and athletics. (Educ. rev. Nov., 34:385-97.)

A plea for reform in college athletics. What is needful at present is not condemnation, but sympathetic treatment of the whole problem by those who know what sport is.

## 371.8. STUDENT LIFE, CUSTOMS, SOCIETIES.

209. Copeland, Arthur. Men and days in Phi Beta Kappa. 143 p. O. Du Bois, \$1.

A brief account of the origin and growth of the society, with list of chapters, distinguished members, the constitution, and a more particular account of the chapter at Syracuse University by which this volume is issued.

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210. Cronson, Bernard. Pupil self-government; its theory and practice. 107 p. D. Macmillan, 90c. net.

This work treats first the genesis of the movement and the causes of its success and failure and its relations to the teachers. Obedience is its means, appreciation its method, and life activities its material. As to conditions, there must be a proper ideal, competent principal and teachers, gradual introduction of the scheme, and power to enforce it. One chapter discusses the ethics of the movement, its relations to life, at home, out of doors, in school, and to individual welfare; its influence in enforcing obedience to law, its relations to citizenship, common welfare, the government, and especially the rise of representative government, are treated. There are eight full-page illustrations and plenty of blank sheets for notes. Author is principal of Public School 3, Manhattan, N, Y.

## 871.9. EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES.

See also papers printed in N. E. A. Proc., pp. 983-999, under the department of special education.

211. Maennel, B. (The) auxiliary schools of Germany. 137 p. O. Government printing office. (U. S.—Education Bureau. Bulletin 3, 1907.)

A free translation of Vom Hilfsschulwesen, a recent German account of the educational provisions in that country for backward, defective, and subnormally endowed children. Full statements are given as to admission procedure, health conditions, classification of pupils, the curriculum, and methods of discipline and instruction. The monograph should be useful wherever such work is being done or is to be attempted in this country.

212. The Psychological clinic: A journal for the study and treatment of mental retardation and deviation; edited by Lightner Witmer. Published by Psychological clinic press, Philadelphia, \$1 per year.

First number appeared in March, 1907. Published primarily in the interest of a large class of children who manifest different degrees of retardation in mental and moral development. It presents the results of investigation conducted mainly through examination and treatment of individual mental and moral peculiarities. It will also take cognizance of all forms of special work for mentally and physically defective children and juvenile delinquents and dependents. Of interest to physicians, social workers, psychologists, and educators. The following important articles appeared in 1907:

A method for determining the extent and causes of retardation in a city school system, by J. E. Bryan. The fifteen months' training of a feeble-minded child, by Lightner Witmer. Public day schools for backward children, by C. H. Town. Need for special classes in the public schools, by J. D. Hellman. Mental condition of juvenile delinquents, by I. H. Coriat. Retardation through neglect in children of the rich, by Lightner Witmer.

213. Snedden, D. S. Administration and educational work of American juvenile reform schools. 207 p. O. Columbia Univ. \$2. (Teachers coll. cont. to educ. no. 12.)

Describes the educational ideals, methods, and results of these institutions, which are so distinctly apart from our general system of public or private education.

214. ——The public school and juvenile delinquency. (Educ. rev. Apr., 33:374-85.)

Urges that "between the parent on the one hand (with the cooperation of his church) and the public school on the other (representing the State in its contribution to the custody and education of children) there should be no middle ground left to the unorganized efforts of charity and voluntary effort, however well-meaning these may be."

## 371.94. NEGRO EDUCATION.

215. Hampton negro conference. Eleventh annual report. 109 p. O. Hampton. The institute press. Published as the Hampton bulletin, vol. 3, no. 3.

W. T. B. Williams; Colored public schools. pp. 39-56.

# 371.95. INDIAN EDUCATION.

See also papers printed in the N. E. A. Proc., pp. 1001-1030, under the department of Indian education. The annual report of the superintendent of United States Indian schools to the Commissioner of Indian Affairs gives current news affecting the education of the Indian.

- 216. Indian rights association. Twenty-fourth annual report for the year 1906. 104 p. O. 1305 Arch st., Phil.
- 216a. Lake Mohonk conference of friends of the Indian and other dependent peoples. Proceedings of the twenty-fifth annual meeting, Oct. 23-25, 1907. 207 p. O. H. C. Phillips, Mohonk lake, N. Y. Gratis.

# 372. ELEMENTARY EDUCATION.

See the N. E. A. Proc., pp. 475-519, for papers read in the department of elementary education.

For additional material on elementary education see The Elementary School Teacher, published monthly, except during July and August, by the University of Chicago elementary school.

See also nos. 26, 53, 136,

All material on child study has been omitted, as this subject is thoroughly covered in the annual bibliography compiled by L. N. Wilson; that for 1906 appears in the Pedagogical Seminary, 14:329-354.

217. Bridgham, Alice. Day by day in the primary school. 3 v. O. Barnes, \$4.

Contents.—v. 1, The autumn months; v. 2, the winter months; v. 3, the spring months.

A programme of suggestions, hints, and directions for enriching, planning, and carrying out schoolroom work on every day of the year. Prepared by a primary teacher who has proved its value in her own school. Covers all subjects. Accompanied by many simple outline sketches and diagrams for blackboard and paper work.

218. Chapin, C. S. Departmental teaching in the grammar grades. (Educ. Apr., 27: 505-14.)

A summary of chief arguments pro and con.

219. Great Britain—Education, Board of. The education and training of the French primary school teacher. 222 p. Q. (Special reports on educational subjects. v. 18.)

More fully described under No. 141.

220. Horace Mann elementary school. (Teachers coll. record, Jan., 8:1-104; May, 8:167-248; Sept., 8:249-350.)

Continuing articles which appeared in January and September, 1906, and were devoted to a description of the work in the first, second, and third grades. The January number of the present volume covers the fourth and fifth grades, the May number the sixth grade, and the September number the seventh.

221. Kilpatrick, V. E. The adaptation of departmental teaching to elementary schools. (Educ. rev. Apr., 33:356-67.)

An examination of underlying principles, with a detailed statement of how it may be undertaken by any elementary school.

222. Thomas, A. B. (The) first school year; a course of study with selection of lesson material, arranged by months, and correlated for use in the first school year. 208 p. D. Flanagan, 60c.

## 372.2. KINDERGARTEN.

For additional kindergarten material see the files of the Kindergarten Review, the Kindergarten Primary Magazine, and the N. E. A. Proc., p. 455-74.

- 223. International kindergarten union. Proceedings of the fourteenth annual meeting, New York, April, 1907. 136 p. O. Anna H. Littell, Secy., 3 Forest ave., Dayton, O.
- 224. National society for the scientific study of education. The Kindergarten and its relation to elementary education. 138 p. O. (Yearbook 6, pt. 2.)

Thoughtful papers containing much cogent argument and admirable statement. They are: The psychologic basis of the kindergarten—E. A. Kirkpatrick; An interpretation of some Froebelian principles—Maria Kraus-Boelté; Conservative and progressive phases of kindergarten education—Patty S. Hill; Evolution of the kindergarten problem—Harriette M. Mills; History of kindergarten influence in elementary education—Nina C. Vandewalker. Reviewed in Kindergarten Magazine, February, 1908, pp. 224-226.

# 373. PRIVATE SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

## Great Britain,

- 225. Leach, A. F. History of Warwick school. 278 p. O. Constable, 10s.
- 226. The public schools from within; a collection of essays on public school education, written chiefly by schoolmasters. 320 p. O. Low, 3s. 6d.

Thirty-two short chapters on the subjects of instruction, moral and social influences, physical and athletic life, historical and descriptive. Reviewed in Athenseum, May 4, 1907.

# 375. THE CURRICULUM: METHODS IN SPECIAL BRANCHES.

See also Nos. 109, 392.

All discussions of special subjects are here, whether they concern university, college, special school, secondary or elementary school, except as they relate to college entrance requirements. For those, see section 378.01.

227. De Garmo, Charles. Principles of secondary education; a text-book. 299 p. D. Macmillan, \$1.25.

A separate description and analysis of the content of each secondary school study to determine its inherent and comparative educational value, and upon the basis of the values thus established to further determine the best possible combination of studies into curricula. One-third of the book is filled with representative programmes of the various types of secondary schools in this and other countries.

The book is planned as a text-book for college and university classes. A second volume is to follow in 1908.

228. Greenwood, J. M. A seven-year course for elementary schools and a fiveyear course for secondary schools. (Educ. May, 27:550-55.)

A continuation of the author's argument in Education for April and May, 1903, favoring a seven-year course in the grades. He does not believe that the year thus saved should be added to the high school course.

## 375.04. ELECTIVE STUDIES.

229. Adams, C. F. Some modern college tendencies. (In his Three Phi Beta Kappa addresses. Houghton, \$1. p. 101-47.)

A summary of objections to the elective system. In a "Supplementary Note" added since this address was first printed in Educational Review, 32:132. Mr. Adams replies to his critics.

#### 875.2. THE TEACHING OF THEOLOGY.

230. Berle, A. A. The education of a minister. (Bibliotheca sacra, Apr., 64:283–98.)

The great need is "real effective training of the minister with some relation to the things he is going to do."

- 231. Berle, A. A. Rout of the theological schools. (Bibliotheca sacra, July, 64:566-87.)
- 232. Buckham, J. W. Modern theological education. (Bibliotheca sacra, Jan., 64:135-47.)

Discusses the curriculum of theological seminaries, and states that a comparison of the courses offered by prominent seminaries of different denominations proves that all theological education is in a state of transition.

#### 275.2. THE TEACHING OF SOCIOLOGY.

233. Ellwood, C: A. How should sociology be taught as a college or university subject? (Amer. jour. of soc. Mar., 12: 588-06.)

## 375.34. LEGAL EDUCATION.

234. American law school review; an intercollegiate law journal. v. 2, Nov. 1906 to Dec. 1907; 3 numbers. West pub. co.

Reports the annual meeting of the Association of American Law Schools, and prints short articles of value and interest to law students.

- 235. Symposium on the value of humanistic, particularly classical, studies as a preparation for the study of law, from the point of view of the profession. (School rev. June, 15:409-35.)
  - I. Value to the lawyer of training in the classics, by Merritt Starr.
  - II. Study of Greek and Latin as a preparation for the study of law, by Lyden Evans.
  - III. Humanistic, and particularly classical, studies as a preparation for the law, by H. B. Hutchins.
    - IV. Discussion of first three papers, by H. P. Davock.
    - V. Discussion of the first three papers, by H. E. Spalding.
    - VI. Concluding remarks, by L. I. Barbour.
    - VII. Appendix to paper of Mr. Merritt Starr.
    - Papers read at the Classical Conference at Ann Arbor, Mich., March, 1907.
- 236. Vance, W: R. Legal education in the South. (Geo. Washington univ. bulletin. v. 6, no. 3, p. 18-27.)

Also in Proceedings of the American Bar Association, 1907. An account on present conditions and opportunities.

#### 875.4. LANGUAGE IN THE CURRICULUM.

 O'Shea, M. V. Linguistic development and education. 347 p. D. Macmillan, \$1.25.

A study of the psychology of linguistic development in young children and its relations to and significance in the formal teaching of languages. The study is based upon close observation of several children (the author's own, we strongly suspect) for a term of years, upon the results of experimental language teaching in model schools, and upon personal investigations of methods of language teaching at home and abroad.

## 875.5. SCIENCE IN THE CURRICULUM.

238. Mann, C. R. The meaning of the movement for the reform of science teaching. (Educ. rev. June. 34:13-25.)

Read at annual meeting of North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools at Chicago, March, 1907.

239. New York state science teachers association. Proceedings of the eleventh annual conference, N. Y. City. Dec. 26-27, 1906. 185 p. O. Albany, Educ. dept. No price. (Secondary education bulletin 34.)

240. Woodhull, J. F. Science for culture. (School rev. Feb., 15: 123-33.)

Science can make for humanism instead of, as too often now, for mere information and utility. To do so, however, it should be divorced from syllabus and examination.

## 375.507. NATURE STUDY.

For additional material on nature study consult the files of the Nature Study Review. Material on school gardens is found in section 375.63.

241. Bigelow, E: F. (The) spirit of nature study; a book of social suggestion and sympathy for all who love or teach nature. 222 p. D. A. S. Barnes & Co., \$1.

# 375.51. MATHEMATICS.

242. Myers, G: W. The year's progress in the mathematical work of the University high school. (School review, Oct., 15:576-93.)

Describes the methods in use at the Chicago University high schools for testing a modern curriculum for high school mathematics.

- 243. Newcomb, Simon. The teaching of arithmetic. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 86-102.)
- 244. Tilley, C: E. Accuracy in mathematics and science. (Educ. Apr., 27:467-77.)

How to secure it in greater measure.

245. Young, J. W. A. (The) teaching of mathematics in the elementary and the secondary school. 351 p. O. Longmans, Green & Co., \$1.50.

An exposition of the pedagogy of mathematics in elementary and secondary grades. Various distinct methods are described and compared. Many useful miscellaneous points of method and mode are treated. Chapters on the preparation of the teacher and the material equipment are followed by the most extensive and important part of the book, the teaching of arithmetic, geometry, and algebra. Full bibliographies accompany the text.

## 875.6. TECHNICAL AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION; ENGINEERING.

See also papers printed in the N. E. A. Proc., pp. 1031-1061, under the department of technical education. See also section 371.42, manual training, and No. 412 below.

246. Behrend, B. A. Engineering education. 26 p. Q. B. A. Behrend, S. Norwood, Ohio, gratis.

Reprinted from the Electrical World, January 5, 1907.

247. Burks, J. D. Democracy in education. (Elem. school teacher, Nov., 8:130-42.)

An argument for the introduction of vocational training into the public schools. Shows that the loss of pupils in the upper elementary grades is due to the ill-adaptation of our educational organization. Concludes that adequate provision for vocational training, beginning at about the sixth year of school, would tend to prolong the school life and increase the vocational efficiency of the great mass of children.

Also in N. E. A. Proceedings, 1907, pp. 787-796, with different title.

248. Citizens' trade school convention. Proceedings and addresses given at Indianapolis, June 10-12, 1907. 53 p. O. Winona Technical institute, gratis.

Addresses by Frank Gunsaulus, J. A. Emery, P. M. Kling, Walter H. Page, J. W. Van Cleave, Anthony Ittner, Arthur D. Dean.

249. Draper, A. S. Our children, our schools and our industries. 48 p. O. N. Y. State Educational dep't, gratis.

A strong showing of the utter inadequacy of American facilities for trade and industrial education, as compared especially with Germany.

250. Duncan, R. K. Temporary industrial fellowships at Kansas University. (No. Amer. rev. 3 May, 185: 54-62.)

Established by commercial houses.

251. Haney, J. P. Vocational work for the elementary schools. (Educ. rev. Nov., 34: 335-46.)

Considers the necessity of offering some form of vocational training in the elementary school, and recommends that for certain schools a modified form of the course of study be arranged to permit vocational training in the seventh and eighth years.

252. Howard, E. D. Cause and extent of the recent industrial progress of Germany. 147 p. O. Houghton, \$1.

In a chapter on industrial education stress is laid upon the intimate relation of school training to vocation. The character and extent of the general and industrial continuation schools are described.

253. Industrial education. (School rev. May, 15: 375-99.)

Symposium by C. H. Thurber, H. J. Skeffington, and C. W. Hubbard at Harvard Teachers' Association. Second paper discusses the attitude of the trade-union and workingman. Third paper outlines effective industrial schools for a small factory community.

- 254. Jackson, D. C. Relations of engineering schools to polytechnic industrial education. (Science, 26 July, n. s. 26:104-11.)
- 255. Jones, A. J. (The) continuation school in the United States. 157 p. O. Government printing office. (U. S.—Education Bureau. Bulletin 1, 1907.)

This monograph argues the need of such schools by statistics showing the rapid decline of school attendance after the age of industrial worth is reached. It indicates briefly how much more extensive and efficient German and English schools of this type are than our own. The work of many typical American schools is described, and finally the place and purpose of the continuation school in our system of education are defined.

256. Kehew, M. M., ed. The movement for industrial education (Charities and the commons, 5 Oct., 19:803-64.)

A survey of present opportunities and immediate and future needs in the vocational training of American boys and girls.

CONTENTS.—H. S. Pritchett—A national society for the promotion of industrial education. S. M. Kingsbury—What is shead for the untrained child in industry? Ralph Albertson—Decay of apprenticeship. P. H. Hanus—Industrial education in Massachusetts. C. F. Warner—Industrial training in the public schools. C. R. Richards—Private trade schools for boys. M. S. Woolman—Private trade schools for girls. F. M. Marshall—The public school and the girl wage-earner. R. A. Woods—Industrial education from the social worker's stand-point. A. G. Bookwaiter—Continuation work.

257. Mass.—Commission on industrial education. First annual report. 71 p. O. State printers. (Public document 76.)

Massachusetts appreciates the need for and possibilities in industrial education, and in providing an effective machinery for moving in the matter. This report of a permanent commission takes as a starting point the conclusions presented by a preliminary commission last year. It covers less than a year, is inevitably little more than a clearing of the ground and a statement of the most obvious and urgent parts of a programme, chief among which is cooperation

with local authorities in the founding of schools for technical and industrial education; yet it is of great interest and suggestiveness as indicating some conclusions and problems which have been reached by a careful study of the situation in one of our greatest industrial States.

258. National association of manufacturers—Committee on industrial education. Report at twelfth annual convention, N. Y. City, May 20-22, 1907. (In Proceedings, p. 110-38.)

Discusses the necessity for trade schools and the attitude of labor unions toward them, and describes some of the newer American technical schools.

259. National education association. Report of the committee on industrial education in schools for rural communities. (In N. E. A. Proc. 409-54.)

Supplementary to report of July, 1905. Describes some effective and successful experiments in industrial education.

- 280. National society for the promotion of industrial education. Bulletins 1 to 4. 1907. C. R. Richards, Teachers college, N. Y. City.
  - 1. Proceedings of the organization meetings.
  - 2. Bibliography on industrial education.
  - 3. Symposium on industrial education.
  - 4. Industrial training for women, by Florence M. Marshall.
- 261. Person, H. S. Industrial education; a system of training for men entering upon trade and commerce. 86 p. O. Houghton, \$1.

This volume, which is one of the prize essays in the Hart, Schaffner & Marx series, deals with the training required by young men who would fit themselves for the higher positions in industry or commerce, and the need of providing such training in the United States. The need is now generally admitted. The author's opinion clearly is that while commercial training should be offered in high schools, collegiate courses, and professional departments, the ideal conditions can be found only in distinctly professional instruction, open solely to those who have already completed a liberal education. The question here raised is a large one, about which, as is well known, there is serious difference of opinion.

262. Richards, C. R. The problem of industrial education. (Manual training mag. April, 8: 125-32.)

Brief analysis of the economic, social, and educational aspects of the problem, with a statement of the functions and limitations of the various existing agencies for industrial training.

263. Rollins, Frank. Industrial education and culture. (Educ. rev. Dec., 34:494-503.)

Address before Schoolmasters' Association of New York and Vicinity, Oct., 1907.

264. Sadler, M. E., ed. Continuation schools in England and elsewhere; their place in the educational system of an industrial and commercial state. 779 p. O. Sherratt & Hughes, 8s. 6d. (University of Manchester publications. Educational ser. No. 1.)

An important volume, in which are collected careful and competent accounts of the history and present status in Great Britain, of the various agencies for "further education," with 8 brief chapters on such schools in the chief European countries and the United States. The contributions of 18 different authors have been carefully edited by Professor Sadler (himself a considerable contributor), and the result is a veritable cyclopedia of information hitherto widely scattered or quite inexistent.

265. Snowden, A. A. The industrial improvement schools of Wuerttemberg. (Teachers coll. record, Nov., 8:351-423.)

Report presented is the outcome of some weeks spent in Wuerttemberg during an investigation of vocational training in Europe.

"It sets forth briefly the economic conditions which hold in the kingdom of Wuerttemberg, the natural resources of the country, and the system of transportation. It then traces the development in this environment of the system of industrial schools and the service which they render in the upbuilding and maintenance of the state."

It also includes a brief description of other industrial and commercial schools of the kingdom, and an outline of the activities of the Wuerttemberg central bureau for industry and commerce.

266. Social education quarterly. June, 1907. 97 p. O.

Contains the following papers: The place of industrial education in the common school system, by F. P. Fish. Industrial education in a prairie State, by E. B. Andrews. American industrial training as compared with European, by F. A. Vanderlip. The problem of industrial education, by C. R. Richards. The needs from the manufacturers' standpoint, by M. W. Alexander. The importance of industrial education to the workingman, by John Golden. Bearings of industrial education upon social conditions, by R. A. Woods.

267. Stratton, G: F. Rising industrial problems: the new apprenticeship. (Eng. Mag. Dec., 34:401-13.)

Indicates that the attitude of trade unions is hostile to attempts to recruit industrial workers through trade schools, but that they prefer and encourage shop training.

268. Vanderlip, F. A. Trade schools and labor unions. (In his Business and education. Duffield, \$1.50. p. 56-81?)

Great emphasis is laid upon the need for continuation trade schools to train, not the captains of industry, but the rank and file of the American industrial army. The German schools of this sort are cited as good examples. The slight comments on the attitude of labor and labor unions to such training are unimportant and argue that better-trained workmen will change the labor view point.

# 375.61. MEDICAL EDUCATION.

See also section 371.7 for material on school hygiene and medical inspection of schools. A list of American medical schools is in Journal of the American Medical Association, August, 1907, 49:576-96.

269. American academy of medicine. Report of the committee on the value of the first degree in our American colleges. (Amer. acad. of med. Bulletin, Aug., 8: 193-248.)

Final report presented to 32d annual meeting of the American Academy of Medicine, at Atlantic City, June 1, 1907. A full discussion of the academic problems of medical education. While no conclusions were definitely stated, the tenor of the report indicated opposition to a full college course before the medical school, but favored a combined college and medical course, with subjects closely related to medicine begun early in the college work. A conference was recommended to discuss the subject further, which met in Pittsburg, January 1-2, 1908, and its discussions appear in the Bulletin for February, 1908.

- 270. Armstrong, H. E. The reform of the medical curriculum: a problem in technical education. (Science progress in the 20th century, 1:544-56.)
  Rejoinder by J. Wade, pp. 635-649.
- 271. Conference on the teaching of hygiene and temperance in the universities and schools of the British Empire. 129 p. D. John Bale, Sons & Danielsson. 2s.

Held in London, April 23, 1907. The papers discuss the teaching of these subjects in Canada, Australia, New Zealand, France, Scandinavia, and England.

272. Long, J. H. Preliminary medical education. (Science, 11 Oct., n. s. 26:457-64.)

Based on a report to the council on medical education of the American Medical Association, April 29, 1907, which is in the Journal of the American Medical Association for May, 1907.

273. Medical education in Scotland. (Scottish med. and surg. jour. Oct., 21:325-66.)

Gives curriculum and regulations at Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Aberdeen universities.

274. Nutting, M. A. The education and professional position of nurses. U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 1:155-205.)

A monograph prepared in 1904. Considers the subject in the United States only.

275. ——and Dock, L. L. History of nursing. 2 v. O. Putnam, \$5.

Chapters 4, 8, and 9, in volume 2, narrate the founding of the first training

schools for nurses in England and America.

276. Semon, Felix. English and German education: a parallel. (British med. jour. Nov., 118: 1197-1206.)

Address delivered at opening meeting of medical society of Manchester, October 16, 1907. A detailed comparison of the methods of medical education in Great Britain and Germany. Advocates modification of the present English preliminary education.

277. Tucker, W. G. Educational democracy. 23 p. O. Albany, no price.

Reprinted from Albany Medical Annals, November, 1907, and in Science for
November 8, 1907. Address delivered at the opening of seventy-seventh session.

November 8, 1907. Address delivered at the opening of seventy-seventh session of the Albany Medical College, September 24, 1907. Criticises the tendency toward absolute control of the practice of medicine by State licensing boards, and indicates some of the present tendencies in medical education which call for restraint.

278. Williams, W: R. The teaching of medicine. (Educ. rev. Dec., 34: 466-77.)

Traces the growth of instruction, beginning with the methods in ancient Greece. Deals with American conditions, showing the present tendency to increase opportunities for gaining practical knowledge.

## 375.63. AGRICULTUAL EDUCATION.

See also papers printed in the N. E. A. Proc. pp. 1063-1084, under the conference of national committee on agricultural education.

- 279. Association of American agricultural colleges and experiment stations. Proceedings of the twentieth annual convention held at Baton Rouge, La., Nov. 14–16, 1906, and twenty-first annual convention held at Lansing, Mich., May 28–30, 1907. O. (U. S.—Experiment stations, Office of, Bulletins 184, 196.)
- 280. Channing, F. A. What agricultural education means to-day. (Fortn. rev. May, 87:785-97.)

Deals with conditions in England. Shows that the most urgent need is rural secondary schools.  $\phantom{a}^{\bullet}$ 

281. Crosby, D. J. Exercises in elementary agriculture—Plant production. 64 p. O. Government printing office. (Office of experiment stations. Bulletin 186.)

A laboratory guide for teachers, showing what may be done with simple exercises and inexpensive apparatus.

- 282. Davis, C: W. Rural school agriculture. 300 p. D. Orange Judd co., \$1.
- 283. Hes, George. Dr. Robertson's work for the training of Canadian farmers. (Rev. of Rev. Nov., 36:576-84.)

284. Jewell, J. R. Agricultural education, including nature study and school gardens. 140 p. O. Government printing office. (U. S.—Education Bureau. Bulletin 2, 1907.)

"Presents an unusually comprehensive survey of the provisions for agricultural education and for instruction in closely related lines in various parts of the world, but with especial reference to the United States."

285. Latter, L. R. School gardening for little children. 167 p. D. Sonnenschein, 2s. 6d.

> Aims to show the place of nature teaching in kindergartens and schools and the method by which the subject should be approached with young children. Originally printed in The Practical Teacher.

286. Medd, J. C. Agricultural education in the United Kingdom. (Nineteenth cent. Jan., 61:108-18.)

Shows the need of national supervision of agricultural education and offers suggestions for improving the present teaching of the subject.

- 287. —— The Village school. (Nineteenth cent. Nov., 62: 758-69.)

  Elementary agricultural education and school gardens in England.
- 288. N. Y. (state)—Education department. Syllabus for secondary schools; Agriculture. 37 p. O. Albany, no price.

Outline of a 3-period course for one year, preferably in the second year of high school. Reference books are suggested and many laboratory exercises described.

- 289. Roosevelt, Theodore. The man who works with his hands; address at the semi-centennial of the founding of agricultural colleges in the United States at Lansing, Mich., May 31, 1907. 14 p. O. (U. S. Dept. of Agriculture. Circular 24.)
- 290. Somerville, William. (The) place of rural economy in a university curriculum; an inaugural lecture delivered at the schools on February 1, 1907.
  28 p. O. Clarendon Press, 35c.

Mr. Somerville is the present Sibthorpian professor of rural economy at Oxford. A review of the creation and development of higher agricultural education in England, and a sketch of possible further developments in it as a subject of instruction and research at Oxford.

291. The teaching of agriculture in the schools of France and Belgium. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1905. 1:87-96.)

Gives outlines of courses in schools of all grades and compares the work in France and England.

- 292. Tormay, Béla de. Agricultural instruction in the kingdom of Hungary. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 445–451.)
- 293. Watkins, W. E., and Lowman, A. School gardening. 103 p. D. Philip, 2s. 6d.

375.64. DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

294. Creighton, Louise. Some modern ideas about women's education. (Nineteenth cent. Oct., 62:578-86.)

Discusses the proper scope for the teaching of domestic economy in the schools of England. Believes "there is ground for fear that the higher side of women's education will not be sufficiently taken into account by the education authorities and that utilitarian considerations will be allowed too much scope." Also in Littell's Living Age, 255: 408-16.

Mainly a protest against what the author would call the new craze of teaching domestic science to girls. She questions whether there is any scientific basis for such teaching.

205. Great Britain—Education, Board of. School training for the home duties of women. Part 3. 121 p. O. (Special reports on educational subjects. v. 19.)

The domestic training of girls in Germany and Austria in elementary, secondary, technical, and continuation schools.

375.65. COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

See also papers printed in N. E. A. Proc., pp. 877-903, under the department of business education.

296. Heelis, F. How to teach business training. 156 p. D. Pitman and sons, 2s. 6d.

A guide for the commercial master in day and evening schools.

297. Jastrow, Joseph. Higher education for business men in the United States and Germany. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1905. 1:97-110.)

Translated from Berliner Jahrbuch für Handel und Industrie, 1904, volume 1. The author was sent by the Berlin chamber of commerce to study American methods of preparing young men for business,

298. Social education quarterly. June, 1907. 97 p. O.

Contains the following papers: Domestic and international commerce, by W. P. Wilson. The social improvement of grammar school graduates in business life, by E. A. Filene. The effect upon the community consequent upon the thorough training of young women to enter business life, by Henry Lefavour. The functions of the university in commercial education, by J. T. Young.

#### 875.7. ART EDUCATION.

See also papers printed in the N. E. A. Proc., pp. 821-848, under the department of art education, and the files of The School Arts Book.

- 299. American institute of architects. Committee on education. Report at Chicago, Nov. 19, 1907. 9 p. O.
- 300. Cram, R. A. Architectural education in the United States. (In his Gothic quest. Baker and Taylor, \$1.50. p. 323-55.)

  Especially during the last decade.
- Ives, H. C. Art education an important factor in industrial development.
   (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1905. 1:155-83.)

375.78. MUSICAL EDUCATION.

See also papers printed in the N. E. A. Proc., pp. 849-876, under the department of music education.

302. Johnson, C. E. (The) training of boys' voices. 60 p. O. Oliver Ditson Co., 75c.

Author is a choirmaster. One chapter is on "Music in schools," and following the one on "Selection of music for boys' voices" there are lists of sacred and secular music suited to boys' voices.

875.82. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE IN THE CURRICULUM.

See also Nos. 411, 414.

303. Baker, G: P. Travelers' English. (Educ. Apr., 27: 448-57.)

Criticises the careless, everyday English of the average undergraduate. Pleads for simple, accurate English. Believes the prevalent inaccurate English of students could be avoided if each school required that the English of its pupils in translations from French, German, Latin, or Greek, and reports and exercises of all kinds should be regarded in assigning the mark for the course in question. In an article on pp. 458-468 Doctor Thorndike points out the bearing of psychology on the question of securing accuracy by formal methods.

304. Course of study in English. The call for it, the character of it and the construction of it. Report of the New England ass'n of teachers of English. (School rev. Oct., 15:559-75.)

Concludes that a syllabus in English is needed; that it should be catholic enough to exercise a steadying and unifying influence over a wide area.

305. Greenwood, J. M. Language teaching. (Educ. rev. June, 34: 26-36.)

From report of city superintendent of schools, Kansas City, Mo. Full of practical suggestions. Believes best results are reached when pupils are so taught that instruction leads them to consecutive thought in expressing themselves in writing and conversation.

306. Hartog, P. J., and Langdon, A. H. The writing of English. 176 p. D. Frowde. 2s. 6d.

Text of this book is "The English boy cannot write English;" the author points out the almost total lack of effective language training in English schools, and compares it with mother-tongue teaching in France, greatly to the credit of the latter. This book is a distinct contribution to history of style.

- 307. Logan, J. D. Quantitative punctuation; a new practical method based on the evolution of the literary sentence in modern English prose. 45 p. D. William Briggs, Toronto, 50c.
- 308. MacClintock, P. L. Literature in the elementary school. 305 p. D. Univ. of Chicago Press. \$1.

This book, the central matter of which appeared in Elementary School Teacher in 1902 and a synopsis in 1904, is the fruit of several years' experience in teaching literature in Prof. John Dewey's laboratory school at the University of Chicago. The book lays special stress on care in choosing material and in viva voce presentation.

309. Mahy, M. C. Aesthetic appreciation of literature in secondary education. (School rev. Dec., 15:731-43.)

A protest against the statement that no secondary teacher can hope for more than intellectual appreciation of the masterpieces of literature on the part of pupils.

- 310. Robertson, S. A. The teaching of English in schools which study no foreign language. (Jour. of educ. (Lond.) Apr., n. s. 28: 286-90.)
- 311. Spaulding, F. E., and Bryce, C. T. Learning to read; a manual for teachers. 219 p. D. Newson & Co., 60c.

Chapter 1 explains the method, which lays special stress on phonetics; chapter 2 describes books, charts, and other materials, chief among which are phonic and rhyme charts; chapters 3 and 4 describe in detail the application of the method.

312. Tanner, G: W. Report of the committee appointed by the English conference to inquire into the teaching of English in the high schools of the middle west. (School rev. Jan., 15: 32-45.)

Scope of inquiry included the attitude of the high school teacher toward the college-entrance requirements, and outside or home reading of pupils. Tabulates answers to a questionnaire sent 67 schools on the conference list. Summing up the objections and commendations it is shown that a broadening of the college-entrance requirements is what is needed to meet the various conditions in different schools and the different personalities of the teachers.

313. Trueblood, T: C. Forensic training in college. (Educ. Mar., 27:381-92.)

Author is professor of elecution and oratory in University of Michigan.

Describes college courses in elecution, oratory, and debating. Shows the

opportunities offered for public work and the benefits derived by students. Lays special stress upon the value of intercollegiate debates, and mentions several of the leagues and systems in vogue.

# 875.84. MODERN LANGUAGES IN THE CURRICULUM.

314. Benson, A. C. The place of modern languages in the secondary curriculum. (Jour. of educ. (Lond.) Feb., n. s. 28: 117-21.)

President's address at annual conference of the Modern Language Association at Durham, January 4, 1907.

Urges reform in linguistic training, and condemns the old theory of the value of classical education as no longer practical. Claims that for the average boy a single modern language, preferably French, should be made the basis of linguistic instruction.

315. Brereton, Cloudesley. Idola pulpitorum: the pitfalis of the practical teacher—French. (Jour. of educ. (Lond.) Feb.-Mar., n. s. 28:109-11 and 179-81.)

Accent, grammar, translation, composition, choice of books, etc.

316. ——. The teaching of modern languages in England. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 366-377.)

French should be the first modern language studied, and it may profitably be begun at nine or earlier.

317. Grandgent, C. H. Is modern language teaching a failure? (School rev. Sept., 15:513-34.)

Address before joint session of the classical and modern language conferences at Ann Arbor, March, 1907. States that the present instruction is still vastly inferior to that of the classics, and as the modern tongues to a considerable extent have replaced Greek and Latin in the secondary school curriculum and in the ordinary college training, no instruction in them can be regarded as satisfactory which does not produce results comparable to those derived from the study of the old humanities. Seeks to discover the obstacles that have up to this time prevented success.

318. Lawton, W: C. A Hellenist's view of Italian. (Educ. rev. June, 34:37-46.)

Italian is more suitable, more practical, and more illuminating than French as the first stage toward the serious scholastic mastery of romance languages and literature. It should be widely if not generally taught in secondary schools, and be pushed vigorously to the front in every college.

319. Why should the teacher of German have a knowledge of phonetics?

Symposium by A. C. von Noé, Edith Clawson, Paul O. Kern. (School rev. Jan., 15: 46-60.)

## 875.88. THE CLASSICS IN THE CURRICULUM.

For further material as to the place and value of Latin and Greek in the school programme, consult the files of The Classical Journal.

320. Adams, C. F. A college fetich. (In his Three phi beta kappa addresses.) (Houghton, \$1. p. 5-48.)

Although delivered and printed twenty-five years ago, this address, denouncing the way in which college Greek is taught and questioning the use of compulsory teaching of it at all, is still pertinent and worth notice here.

321. Kelsey, F. W. The position of Latin and Greek in American universities. (Educ. rev. Jan.-Feb., 33:59-76, 162-76.)

Continuing article in same review for December, 1906; these installments discuss the value of the classics as educational instruments and the inadequate amount of time accorded them in the curricula of our secondary and higher schools. Professor Kelsey's papers are, of course, special pleading, and are in turn discussed by Irving King in same review for May, 1907, who shows that some of the common arguments used in support of classical studies are open to serious question, but believes they will continue to have a very definite

and permanent place in modern civilization, and in the final readjustment will occupy no less dignified position than they do to-day, for they will have definitely allied themselves with modern life and modern needs.

322. Page, T. E. Classical studies. (Educ. rev. Sept., 34:144-50.)

Considers the change in the position of classical studies in the English public schools during the last fifty years. Shows that the danger of sacrificing and difficulty of retaining are equally clear, and that means for avoiding both is the chief problem of the public school of to-day. Reprinted from the London Times.

323. Paulsen, Friedrich. Humanistic vs. realistic education. (Educ. rev. Jan., 33: 36-45.)

Translation of a chapter in Lexis: Die Reform des höhern Schulwesens in Preussen. Contrasts the value of classical and that of scientific education, with special reference to the schools of Germany.

324. Rouse, W. H. D., ed. (The) year's work in classical studies, 1906. 140 p.O. Murray, 2s. 6d.

The first number of a new annual under the auspices of the Classical Association, designed to inform teachers of classical subjects of important progress throughout the world.

325. Symposium on the value of humanistic, particularly classical, studies as a preparation for the study of law, from the point of view of the profession. (School rev. June, 15:409-35.)

#### 875.9. HISTORY IN THE CURRICULUM.

326. Cauchie, Alfred. The teaching of history at Louvain. (Catholic univ. bulletin, Oct., 13:515-61.)

Descriptive sketch of the practical and theoretical courses in the historical department of Louvain University.

327. Larned, J. N. The peace-teaching of history. (Jour. of social science, no. 45:175-88.)

The staple of history has always been war. That should be less emphasized and different social lessons drawn from it.

# 875.91. GEOGRAPHY IN THE CURRICULUM.

The Journal of Geography, New York, and the Geographical Teacher, London, are especially devoted to the interests of teachers of geography.

328. Gibbs, David. The pedagogy of geography. (Ped. sem. Mar., 14:39-100.)

Includes an historical review of text-books and methods of teaching the subject in elementary and higher schools in Europe and the United States. Outlines an elementary course.

# 376. EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

See also Nos. 27, 295.

- 329. Beale, Dorothea. Secondary education of girls in England during the past fifty years. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 377-86.)
- 330. Burstall, S. A. English high schools for girls: their aims, organization and management. 243 p. D. Longmans, \$1.25.

Author is head mistress of the Manchester high school for girls. The book sketches the characteristic aims, organization, and methods of the English high school for girls as it exists to-day.

331. Creighton, Louise. Some modern ideas about women's education. (Nineteenth cent. Oct., 62:578-86.)

Discusses the proper scope for the teaching of domestic economy in the schools of England. Believes "there is ground for fear that the higher side of women's education will not be sufficiently taken into account by the education authorities and that utilitarian considerations will be allowed too much scope." Also in Littell's Living Age, 255: 408-16.

332. Girls' school year book; public schools, 1907. 515 p. D. Sonnenschein, 2s. 6d.

Second year. A concise, comprehensive record of all matters of interest to parents, school mistresses, and girls in connection with English secondary education.

333. Howe, E. M. The southern girl: a neglected asset. (Educ. rev. Mar., 33:288-97.)

States that the supreme need of the South is the better education of the southern girl, and suggests its accomplishment by: (1) Good secondary schools, adequately endowed; (2) establishment of scholarships in northern colleges for southern girls; (3) generous increase in the endowment of their best home colleges.

334. Marshall, F. M. Industrial training for women. 59 p. O. (Nat. soc. for the promotion of industrial education. Bulletin 4.)

Discusses the changed position of women in industry, their opportunities for effective work, and some practical schemes for their training in particular trades. See also Nos. 256, 260, 295, above.

- 335. Paine, H. E. The life of Eliza Baylies Wheaton: a chapter in the history of the higher education of women, prepared for the alumnæ of Wheaton Seminary. 286 p. O. \$1.25.
- 336. Paulsen, Friedrich. The modern system of higher education for women in Prussia. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 395-408.)
- 337. Sée, Camille. The secondary education of girls in France. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 386-95.)
- 338. Shields, T. E. The education of our girls. 299 p. D. Benziger, \$1.

The pronoun in the title means Roman Catholic. Under a slender thread of story and dialogue the author brings forward typical views on both sides of the question of coeducation. The conclusion reached is plainly in favor of the higher education of women, but not under coeducational conditions.

#### 376.7. COEDUCATION.

339. Sachs, Julius. Co-education in the United States. (Educ. rev. Mar., 33:298-305.)

Claims that its disadvantages outweigh its advantages. While thoroughly in place in elementary schools, it is of doubtful value in secondary schools and colleges. Predicts a change in the general attitude toward the question. Translated by the author from the German in Die Wissenschaften, June, 1906.

340. Van Hise, C: R. Educational tendencies in state universities. (Educ. rev. 34:504-20.)

This paper is devoted especially to the problem of coeducation, showing that the natural segregation of the sexes is an educational tendency which must be provided for, otherwise coeducation will be weakened.

#### 377. RELIGIOUS AND MORAL EDUCATION.

341. Archibald, E. J. (The) primary department. 91 p. D. Sunday school times, 50c.

342. Cabot, E. L. An experiment in the teaching of ethics. (Educ. rev. Dec., 34:433-47.)

Author is a teacher of twelve years' experience in a girls' school, who believes the study of ethics can be made as outgoing, enlarging, and free from faise self-reference as the study of history or literature.

- 343. Coe, G. A. The reason and the functions of general religious education. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 271-81.)
- 344. Cope, H. F. The modern Sunday school in principle and practice. 206 p. D. Revell, \$1.

Historical and administrative rather than pedagogical. Twenty short chapters on different phases of Sunday-school work. Brief, but full of suggestions. The author is general secretary of the Religious Education Association.

345. Du Bois, Patterson. The culture of justice; a mode of moral education and of social reform. 282 p. S. Dodd, Mead, 75c.

An argument that neither love nor justice alone, but love and justice are the fundamental moral and social principles. The book elaborates this theory in its first half; in the concluding chapters it treats of specific applications to the training of children, and considers obedience, punishment, and money as means of moral training. Parents and teachers will find here a restatement of some old ideals.

346. Ellis, Havelock. Religion and the child. (Nineteenth cent. May, 61:764-75.)

Characteristics of the child mind have not been taken into account in dealing with the religious instruction problem. "In the wrangle over teaching of religion in schools we have failed to realize that fundamental notions of morality are a far more essential part of school training."

347. Hart, M. A. The normal training of the child. 55 p. S. Christian pub. co., 25c.

Earnest paragraphs on preparation for, method and content of, religious instruction.

- 348. Hervey, W. L. How may the teaching of religion be made potent for morality. (Congress of arts and sciences. Houghton. v. 8, p. 282-93.)
- 349. Lodge, Oliver. Religious education of children. (No. Amer. rev. Aug., 185: 699-710.)

Discusses proper scope of, and materials for, imparting religious instruction to the young. Also in Contemp. Review, Aug., 92:153-64.

350. Moral training in the public schools; the California prize essays. 203 p. D. Ginn, \$1.50.

Essays by C. E. Rugh, T. P. Stevenson, E. D. Starbuck, Frank Cramer, G. E. Myers. The traditional American policy of a secular school system and present American conditions are assumed by each writer as a basis. Mr. Stevenson's essay describes several of the strongest plans which have been urged for grafting formal religious or moral instruction on our public school system.

351. Religious education association. The materials of religious education; being the principal papers presented at, and the proceedings of the fourth general convention, Rochester, N. Y., Feb. 5-7, 1907. 379 p. O. Rel. educ. assoc., 153 La Salle st., Chicago, \$2.

Over 40 brief papers, most of them by writers whose names challenge attention. The most important are on the large social phases of moral and religious ideals and the efforts to attain them through formal education.

352. Rogers, C. F. The education question: foreign parallels. (Church quarrev. Oct., 65:1-17.)

How the religious question is handled in other European countries.

353. Sisson, E. O. The spirit and value of Prussian religious instruction. (Amer. jour. of theol. Apr., 11:250-68.)

Religious instruction is regarded in Prussia as an indispensable element in any complete school course, but in its present form it stands in need of radical and extensive reform.

354. Stebbins, F. V. (The) home department of to-day. 128 p. D. Sunday school times, 25c.

Full of practical suggestions for the conduct of this rather new phase of Sunday-school work.

355. Wenner, G. U. Religious education and the public school; an American problem. 163 p. D. Bonnell, Silver, 75c.

Urging the public school authorities of the country to unite in giving up Wednesday afternoon to permit children to attend formal religious instruction in their own churches. This plan is discussed by S. P. Delany in Education for May, 1907, 28:97-112.

356. Wilde, Norman. The psychology of religion and education. (Educ. rev. Sept., 34:180-95.)

The problem of religious education is not how to add religion to a nature devoid of it, but how to develop religion in a life aiready disposed to it. Formal instruction in religion in advance of the child's need and interests is useless.

# 378. HIGHER EDUCATION: COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

357. Eliot, C. W. Academic freedom. An address delivered before the Phi beta kappa society at Cornell university, May 29, 1907. 24 p. O. Andrus & Church, Ithaca, N. Y.

Also in Science, 5 July, 1907, n. s. 26:1-12, and in Journal of Pedagogy, Sept.-Dec. 1907, 20:9-28.

- 358. Jordan, D. S. College and the man. 78 p. D. Amer. Unitarian Ass'n, 80c.

  Paragraphs addressed to high school students or those in college, presenting the advantages of a college education.
- 359. Person, H. S. The college graduate in trade and industry. (Educ. June. 27:589-600.)

Shows that the changes in the business world have created a demand for new qualifications in young men entering it. While acknowledging that the success of a college man relative to a noncollege man will depend upon the nature of the business undertaken, the conclusion is that of young men endowed with a natural capacity for business, the college trained advance more rapidly to positions of responsibility than those who enter business from the high school. Cites as proof, the development of schools for higher commercial education.

- 360. Sadler, S. H. The higher education of the young; its social, domestic and religious aspects. Ed. 2. 276 p. D. Dutton, 3s. 6d.
- 361. Vanderlip, F. A. Co-ordination of higher education. (In his Business and education. Duffield, \$1.50. p. 1-19.)

Founder's day address. Girard College, May 20, 1905. Argues that the men who make great educational gifts might with much profit be more consulted as to using the money, because the qualities which enable a man to get a million dollars and which move him to give it make him a good adviser.

#### Canada.

362. Lord, W. F. Degree-granting institutions in Canada. (Nineteenth cent. Aug., 62:262-71.)

Laval, McGill, Queens, University of Toronto.

#### France.

363. Calvet, J. Catholic university education in France. (Catholic univ. bulletin, Apr., 13:191-210.)

Describes the distinctive features of the free Catholic universities at Paris, Lille, Angers, Lyon, and Toulouse, with a résumé of the results accomplished during the thirty years of their existence.

364. Du Pouey, Robert. Americans in French universities. (University of California chronicle, Oct., 9:335-53.)

Gives the American contemplating study at French universities the practical information which will save him time and money.

365. Wendell, Barrett. Impressions of contemporary France. Universities. (Scrib. mag. Mar., 41:314-26.)

#### Great Britain.

- 366. Headlam, A. C. Universities and the empire. A paper read at the Imperial conference on education, May, 1907. 24 p. D. Spottiswoode, 6d.

  The part they may play and how it may be done.
- 367. Irish university question. (Quarterly rev. Apr., 206: 536-46.)

  Comments on the Report of the Royal Commission on Trinity College, Dublin, and the University of Dublin, 1906.
- 368. Jackson, W: W. Some problems of university reform. (Fortn. rev. Oct., 88:562-74.)

A partial review of some recent expressions of opinion which appeared as a series of letters in the London Times under the title "Oxford and the nation," and comments upon the speech of the Bishop of Birmingham, addressed to the House of Lords, in favor of the appointment of a commission to deal with the universities. A. E. Zimmern replies on several points in same review for November, 1907, 88:744-53.

- 369. Aberdeen. Aberdeen university. Record of the celebration of the quarter-centenary, Sept. 25–28, 1906. 656 p. Q. The Univ. of Aberdeen press. (Aberdeen univ. studies, no. 29.)
- 370. Cambridge. Fay, C. R. King's College, Cambridge. 128 p. D. Dutton, 75c. (College monographs, 3.)

Much more space is given to the architecture and grounds than in other volumes of this series.

371. ——— Scott, R. F. St. John's College, Cambridge. 111 p. D. Dutton, 75c. (College monographs, 2.)

Two chapters of "guide-book" matter are followed by a brief history of the college, with a final chapter on its social life.

- 372. Durham. The future of the university of Durham. (Church quarrev. July, 64:257-76.)
- 373. London. Record of the visit of the University of Paris to the University of London, Whitsuntide, 1906. Murray, 5s.

- 374. Oxford. Lawson, W. R. Oxford finance. (Contemp. rev. Nov., 92: 622-36.)

  An argument against the proposed increased endowment for Oxford University. Charges laxity in the present financial management and includes tables which show that an education at Oxford is more expensive than at German or Scottish universities.
- 375. Marriott, J: A. Oxford and the nation. (Nineteenth cent. Oct., 62:674-88.)

Indicates some of the leading reforms which have been the outgrowth of the commission of 1850, and discusses specific suggestions for further reform which would render Oxford more serviceable.

- 376. ——Oxford and the nation, by some Oxford tutors. London Times, 1s.

  A reprint of some notable "Times" letters as to the present and future of Oxford University.
- 377. —— Prickard, A. O. New College, Oxford. 99 p. D. Dutton, 75c. (College monographs, 5.)
- 378. —— Scholz, R. F., and Hornbeck, S. K. Oxford and the Rhodes scholarships. 172 p. D. Oxford univ. press, 85c.

Contains the Rhodes will, methods through which it has been carried out, such information about Oxford as a Rhodes scholar is presumed to want, list of Rhodes scholars, copies of examination papers, and much other similar matter. More particular information, of interest especially to candidates from the United States, is found in the Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education for 1905, volume 1, p. 41-55.

379. —— Warren, T. H. Magdalen College, Oxford. 135 p. D. Dutton, 75c. (College monographs, 4.)

A brief popularization of the work of Bloxam, Macray, and H. A. Wilson. Unlike the other volumes in this series, this one is wholly historical and not of the "handbook" character.

380. — White, H. J. Merton College, Oxford. 104 p. D. Dutton, 75c. (College monographs, 6.)

A short popular handbook of the college, with a brief prefatory, historical chapter. 14 illustrations.

#### United States.

Full statistical data for American colleges and universities are in the Report of the U. S. Commissioner of Education for 1906, 1:445-592.

381. Adams, C. F. Three phi beta kappa addresses: A college fetich, 1883; "Shall Cromwell have a statue?" 1902; Some modern college tendencies, 1906. 200 p. O. Houghton, \$1.

This collection of pieces contains, besides the three addresses noted on the title-page, "The journeyman's retrospect," "The Harvard tultion fee," and "The fiftieth year 1856-1906."

- 382. Adams, G: B. The college in the University. (Educ. rev. Feb., 33: 121-44.)

  Historical sketch of the development of the curriculum for higher education in America.
- 383. Bascom, John. American higher education. (Educ. rev. Sept., 34:130-43.)

  Contrasts college curriculum and life of the present with conditions sixty years ago. States that higher education has caught an artificial haste from the commercial world and its gains have been sporadic. More blame than praise is given to the elective system, fraternity life, and athletics.

384. Birdseye, C. F. Individual training in our colleges. 484 p. O. Macmillan, \$1.75.

A portrayal of present American college conditions, which indicates the almost complete disappearance of rugged individual training, development of character, and wholesome, effective intellectual cultivation. The book shows how these conditions have arisen from or have accompanied the brick, mortar, and endowment stage of our university growth, with its enormous numerical increase of students. The author makes some very definite suggestions for betterment, chief of which is the enthusiastic development of the possibilities before the Greek letter fraternities, through their alumni, in supplying the individual training available through no other college institution.

**385. Canfield, J. H.** On "The decay of academic courage." (Educ. rev. Jan., 33:1-10.)

A protest against the too prevalent criticism of the leaders of educational supervision and administration, illustrated by discussion of present powers and duties of the American college president.

386. Carpenter, W: H. A plea for a rational terminology. (Educ. rev. Oct., 34: 259-71.)

Recommends a stricter distinction between the names "college" and "university."

387. Draper, A. S. Américan type of university. (Science, July 12, n. s. 26:33-43.)

Address delivered at the commencement of Syracuse University, June, 1907. Discusses the distinguishing features of the new type of American university which has developed during the last fifty years.

- 388. Foster, W: T. The gentleman's grade. (Educ. rev. Apr., 33:386-92.)

  Deals with the standard of daily college work. Believes that the fairest and most potent way in which to stimulate students is to count quality as well as quantity toward the A. B. degree.
- 389. Lowell, A. L. American universities. (Science, 28 June, n. s. 25:985-96.)

  Annual Harvard address at Yale, April, 1907. Discusses the distribution of students and gives statistics to show that endowed universities are doing a more fully national work than those supported by the State. Suggests plans for effective grouping of students.
- 390. The responsibility of the college for the moral conduct of the student.

  (In Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the middle states and Maryland. Proc. of twentieth annual convention, 1906. p. 93–125.)

  Papers by J. H. Harris, J. M. Taylor, J. H. Denbigh.
- 391. Salmon, L. M. The encroachments of the secondary schools on the college curriculum. (In Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the middle states and Maryland. Proc. of twentieth annual convention, 1906. p. 56-63.)
- 392. Snow, L. F. The college curriculum in the United States, 186 p. O. Columbia Univ. \$1.50. (Teachers coll. cont. to educ. no. 10.)

An historical study of the growth and development of the college curriculum from 1638 to the present time, based principally on what are termed the five formal documents, namely: President Dunster's Laws, 1642; Provost Smith's Programme, 1756; Report of the Yale faculty, 1828; Report of Committee of Ten, 1892; Incorporation of Carnegie Institution, 1902.

393. Tombo, Rudolf. Geographical distribution of the student body at a number of universities and colleges. (Science, 26 July, n. s. 26:97-104.)

Seventeen institutions are now represented in these interesting annual tables.

- 394. Tombo, Rudolf. University registration statistics. (Science, 29 Nov., n. s. 26:729-44.)
- 395. Wenley, R. M. Transition or what? (Educ. rev. May, 33: 433-51.) Can we stem the tide? (Educ. rev. Oct., 34: 241-58.)

The first paper makes observations on the text, "Whither are our dropsical and anemic universities tending?" The second maintains that unwise pressure of public opinion from without, on our universities, is more to be feared than the fancied internal jarring of the machinery which so often is made the subject of "reforms."

396. West, A. F. American liberal education. 135 p. D. Scribner, 75c.

Six papers and addresses on topics pertaining to our higher education.

Six papers and addresses on topics pertaining to our higher education. All have appeared in print between 1900 and 1906 and have been noted in previous annual issues of this bibliography in the Educational Review.

397. Cincinnati university. Prentis, H. W. Jr. Cincinnati university. (Ohio magazine, Jan., 2:43-53.)

A popular account, with numerous pictures of buildings.

398. College of the city of N. Y. Mosenthal, P. J., and Horne, C. F., editors.

The City college; memories of sixty years edited for the associate alumni of the College of the City of New York. 565 p. Q. Putnam, \$5.

A sumptuous memorial volume, made up of brief chapters on various phases of college history and life by former students, many of them now men of distinction.

- 399. Denison university. Memorial volume of Denison university, 1831–1906. Part I. The development of the college. Part II. Seventh general catalogue. 286 p. O. Pub. by the University, \$1.
- 400. Illinois state normal university. Semi-centennial history, 1857-1907; prepared under the direction of a committee of the faculty. 384 p. O. The Univ. Normal, Ill., \$1.22.
- 401. Leland Stanford university. Alden, R. M. College authority. (Nation, 4 July, 85:12-13.)

An account of the new (since 1904) form of internal university government at Leiand Stanford Jr. University.

- 402. Maryland university. Cordell, E. F. University of Maryland, 1807-1907, its history, influence, equipment and characteristics, with biographical sketches and portraits of its founders, benefactors, regents, faculty and alumni. 2 v. Q. Lewis pub. co.
- 403. North Carolina university. Battle, K. P. History of the University of North Carolina from . . . 1789 to 1868. 880 p. O. Edwards & Broughton co., Raleigh, \$3.

A second volume is promised, bringing the history to date.

- 404. Otterbein. Garst, Henry. Otterbein university, 1847-1907. 316 p. D. United Brethren pub. house, Dayton, O., 75c.
- 405. Union university. Raymond, A. V. V. Union university; its history, influence, characteristics and equipment, with the lives and works of its founders, benefactors, officers, regents, faculty and the achievements of its alumni. 3 v. O. Lewis pub. co. N. Y., \$30.

Volume 1 contains the history, not only of Union College proper, but of Albany Medical College, Albany Law School, Dudley Observatory, and Albany College of Pharmacy, now all parts of Union University. The last two volumes are biographical. See also No. 34 above.

406. Wesleyan university. Celebration of the seventy-fifth anniversary of the founding of Wesleyan university 1831-1906. 216 p. O. Wesleyan univ., \$1.

Contains the addresses, programme of the exercises, many portraits of faculty and buildings, and much incidental historical material.

407. Yale university. Dexter, F. B. Biographical sketches of the graduates of Yale college with annals of the college history; vol. 4, 1778-1792. 752 p. Q. Holt, \$5.

It is twenty-two years since volume 1 appeared, and the author in his preface to the present volume speaks doubtfully of its continuation.

#### 878.01. COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

408. Bruce, M. S. College entrance requirements in French. (Educ. rev. Apr., 33:406-13.)

Finds little to criticise with respect to the written examinations now set by the majority of the colleges, but suggests that additional oral requirements be made.

- 409. College entrance examination board. Seventh annual report of the secretary. (Educ. rev. Oct., 34:272-316.)
- 410. Davis, N. F. Is the present method of granting certificate-rights to preparatory schools satisfactory? (School rev. Feb., 15:145-52.)

Author is secretary of New England college entrance certificate board. He describes its methods and answers some of the chief complaints.

411. Greenough, C. N., and others. A report on the examinations in English for admission to Harvard college. June 1906. 41 p. O. Harvard univ. 15c.

"Several years' experience in reading English entrance examination books has impressed upon us the regularity with which candidates repeat certain elementary errors. To put into the hands of teachers a large number of these errors and to make some suggestions for preventing them are the objects of this report." Preface.

A review in the Educational Review, June, 1907, says that the Harvard examiners place far too much stress on the technicalities of punctuation, spelling, and capitalization, and are in other ways so narrow and dogmatic in methods of marking as to overlook true proportion and values. The reviewer cites Barrett Wendell in support of his argument.

412. National society for the scientific study of education. Vocational studies for college entrance. 79 p. O. (Yearbook 6, pt. 1.)

Papers on the history, policy, and possibility of the suggestion, by C. A. Herrick, H. W. Holmes, T. de Laguna, V. Prettyman, and W. J. S. Bryan.

413. Rollins, Frank. Syllabuses and examinations in physics. (Educ. rev. Nov., 34:347-64.)

Paper read before the Schoolmasters' Association of New York and Vicinity, 1906. Author is principal of the Stuyvesant High School, New York City. Compares the syllabuses of the college entrance examination board, New York State education department, and the N. E. A., and prints entrance examination papers from Yale, Harvard, Princeton, Columbia, and the college entrance board.

414. Tanner, G: W. Report of the committee appointed by the English conference to inquire into the teaching of English in the high schools of the middle west. (School rev. Jan., 15:32-45.)

415. Wight, J: G. Should college entrance requirements be reduced in quantity? (In Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the middle states and Maryland. Proc. of twentieth annual convention, 1906. p. 45-56.)

Argues for the affirmative.

416. Young, W. H. The high schools of New England as judged by the standard of the college certificate board. (School rev. Feb., 15:134-44.)

#### 878.2. ACADEMIC DEGREES.

417. Carpenter, W: H. The utility of the Ph. D. degree. (Educ. rev. June, 34:1-12.)

Considers many of the recent criticisms as unjust, and presents in a clear fashion the status of the Ph. D. degree in America, showing that it is the man who bears the degree and not the degree he bears that is the end of education.

418. Doctorates conferred by American universities. (Science, 30 Aug., n. s. 26: 276-82.)

Analysis of the statistics of the doctorate degree conferred by nineteen American universities during the past ten years.

419. Fletcher, J. B. Teachers of literature and the Ph. D. (Educ. rev. Sept., 34:175-79.)

Believes that the highest academic degree in course should not be administered as a "teacher's degree," but as a "scholar's degree." Suggests that the M. A. be extended to meet the teacher's need, and that it be made the "teacher's degree."

#### 378.8. GRADUATE WORK: RESEARCH.

- 420. Comstock, G: C. The appointment and obligations of university fellows. (In Association of American universities. Journal of proceedings and addresses of eighth annual conference, 1907. p. 39-44.)
- 421. Hall, G. S. The appointment and obligations of graduate fellows. (In Association of American universities. Journal of proceedings and addresses of the eighth annual conference, 1907. p. 16–38.)

Chiefly devoted to statistics of number, subjects, income, and conditions as to tenure and work.

# 379. PUBLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION: THE STATE AND EDUCATION.

422. Judson, H. P. Education by the state and for the state. (In Conference for education in the south. Proceedings of tenth conference, 1907. p. 46-56.)

Discussion by F. W. Hinitt, pp. 57-62.

#### 379.11. SCHOOL FINANCE: TAXATION.

423. Eliot, C: W: The exemption of educational institutions from taxation. (In Association of American universities. Journal of proceedings and addresses of eighth annual conference, 1907. p. 48–49, and Appendix, p. 107–11.)

Anent the recent attempt in Massachusetts to tax property of Harvard University.

424. Page, T. W. The exemption of educational institutions from taxation. (In Association of American universities, Journal of proceedings and addresses of eighth annual conference, 1907. p. 49-56.)

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425. Public-school finance: what next? (In N. E. A. Proc. p. 343-60.)

Includes papers by J. D. Burks and ex-Governor G. C. Pardee, which discuss the need and value of some general and definite administrative standards in the present methods of the distribution of State funds.

#### 879.14. SCHOOL LAWS.

- 426. Legislation relating to education enacted by the fifty-ninth congress, 1905-7. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 2:1229-55.)

  Summaries, not text, in meet cases.
- 427. The new Prussian school law of 1906. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 1:35-72.)
- 428. Rogers, H. J. Educational legislation in 1905. (Educ. rev. Jan., 33:46-58.)

A similar review for 1906 appears in Bulletin 113 of the New York State Library, pp. 233-242.

#### 379.15. SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

429. Elliott, E: C. A type of positive educational reform. (Educ. rev. Apr., 33:344-55.)

Describes the workings of the county school board conventions with special reference to Wisconsin, and shows them to be valuable factors in public rural education.

430. Hartmann, C. G. A study in school supervision with special reference to rural school conditions in Texas. 180 p. O. (Bulletin of the Univ. of Texas. No. 90.)

Author is superintendent of public instruction in Travis County, Tex., and the monograph was prepared while a graduate student at the university. It is a study of the origin, manner, and effectiveness of county supervision of schools, net only in Texas but throughout the country. The writer is a strong believer in the system.

#### 279.23. COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

431. Chrisman, Oscar. Paying children to attend school. (Arena, Feb., 37:166-71.)

A new form of compulsory education in opposition to child labor.

432. Compulsory school attendance and its relation to the general welfare of the child. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 2:1263-90.)

Discusses the relations of child labor, juvenile delinquency, school hygiene, and truancy to compulsory attendance.

433. Sullivan, J. D. A summary of the compulsory attendance and child labor laws of the states and territories of the United States. 112 p. O. (N. Y. state library bulletin 114.)

#### 879.5. SECONDARY EDUCATION IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES.

#### France.

434. Compayré, Gabriel. Public instruction in France in 1906. (Elem. school teacher, Mar., 7:369-78.)

Indicates the essential features of the changes which the impulse of republican government has wrought in French education within the past quarter of a century.

#### Germany.

435. The new Prussian school law of 1906. (U. S.—Education, Comm'r of. Report for 1906. 1:35-72.)

Gives the text of the law, extracts from discussion in Parliament, and domestic and foreign press notices.

436. Ruediger, W: C. The schools of Hamburg, Germany. (Educ. Dec., 28:224-32.)

Account of a personal visit to a Realschule, a Volksschule, and a Lehrer Seminar, with comments upon the discipline and methods of instruction and a brief statement of teachers' salaries in Germany.

#### Great Britain.

- 437. Findlay, J. J. Churches and the schools. (Educ. rev. Feb., 33:186-92.)

  Discusses the feeling of teachers toward tests for religious beliefs or "fitness to teach" as bearing on the educational struggle in England. Reprinted from the Westminster Gazette, London.
- 438. Foster, Michael. Education, elementary and secondary. (Nineteenth cent. Mar., 61:490-500.)

Review of a report of the consultative committee of the English board of education on questions affecting higher elementary schools.

439. Great Britain—Education, Board of. Judgments of the Divisional court, Court of appeal, and House of lords in the case of the king v. the County council of the West Riding of Yorkshire. 42 p. O. ([Parliament. Papers by command] Cd. 3391.)

A suit to determine whether the county council should pay for denominational religious instruction in voluntary elementary schools. The highest court gives judgment in the affirmative.

440. Kandall, I. L. The Irish intermediate system. (Jour. of educ. (Lond.) June, n. s. 28:397-99.)

Shows that the great need of Irish secondary education is relief from the incubus of an examination system.

- 441. Lawson, W. R. John Bull and his schools; a book for parents, rate-payers and men of business. 304 p. D. Blackwood, 5s.
- 442. National union of teachers. Handbook-of education, prepared by J. H. Yoxall and Ernest Gray. 591 p. D. N. U. T., Bolton House, 67 & 71, Russell Square, London, W. C. 3s. 6d.

Contains particulars respecting the organization and administration of elementary and secondary education in England and Wales. With the "Companion to the N. U. T. Code" and the N. U. T. edition of the code of parliamentary statutes and regulations this present volume forms a complete survey of English popular educational machinery.

- 443. Sadler, M. E. The educational awakening in England. (N. E. A. 50th anniv. vol. p. 361-366.)
- 444. ——French influences in English education. (Educ. rev. Feb., 33:145-61.)

Address delivered at London University, June, 1906. Shows that France gave England much of the form of its ancient university institutions and inspired Englishmen with the love of scholastic philosophy. Reprinted from Modern Language Teaching, October, 1906.

445. Sadler, M. E. Influence of the state in English education. (Church quar. rev. Oct., 65: 166-92.)

"The contention of this article is that under the conditions which prevail in England the part of the state is to inspect, recognize, encourage, and (when needful) aid every kind of efficient and needed school."

446. ——President's address, delivered before the Educational science section of the British association for the advancement of science. (In British association for the advancement of science. Report, 1906. p. 764-76.)

A review of the general course of events in contemporary English education.

447. Schoolmasters' yearbook and directory 1907. 1046 p. D. Sonnenschein, 5s.

Fifth issue of a most useful current reference book on secondary education in England and Wales. The general scope and character are unchanged, part 2 (about half the book) being a directory of masters and schools.

#### India.

448. Education. (Imperial gazetteer of India. Clarendon press, \$2. 4:407-56.)

A survey of conditions and facilities for public education as they were in 1901-2, with a full account of how the Indian state schools are administered.

#### United States.

This section is meant to include only current discussion relating to present conditions. All history is found in section 370.9, subhead United States. Matter on education in the separate States is arranged at the end of this section alphabetically under the names of the States. A current chronicle of educational events in the United States is found in each number of the Forum.

449. Maxwell, W. H. Present needs of the public schools. (Nation, 25 April, 84: 379-81.)

"In the present article I shall speak chiefly of the New York City schools with which I am most familiar, but many of my arguments apply to the school systems of all our larger cities." Topics discussed are: Smaller classes in elementary schools; changes in compulsory-education law; high-school administration; more workshops, kitchens, and kindergartens; schools for defectives; physical examinations; more money.

- 450. Salmon, L. M. The encroachments of the secondary schools on the college carriculum. (In Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the middle states and Maryland. Proc. of twentieth annual, 1906. p. 56-63.)
- 451. Thorndike, E: L. A neglected aspect of the American high school. (Edúc. rev. Mar., 33:245-55.)

States that the variability in the size of the teaching staff and size of the student body are not taken into account in the discussion of secondary school problems. Accompanied by tables of comparative statistics arranged by States.

452. Why is public education in the United States not as successful as it is in Germany? (Educ. rev. Mar., 33:217-44.)

Translated from the German by Prof. Rudolf Tombo, jr., of Columbia University. States that American schools are not able to produce the excellent results secured by German schools, and discusses the following causes as responsible for this condition:

(1) Causes beyond the teacher's control, under which he includes: Composition of our mixed population, inclination of our people to change their abode, local self-government, which excludes national concentration in school organization; failure to enforce compulsory attendance laws; discrepancy between enrollment and actual attendance; lack of provision for defectives or backward

to 5.

children; short school year; difficulties of English language; fallere to teach metric system, and introduction of many specialties into course of study.

(2) Evils which are remedial in part, under which are mentioned: Waste of time in instruction, poor methods of teaching, foolish and sentimental discipline, insufficient training possessed by American teachers, low salaries, and bad methods of promotion, and the elective system in secondary schools,

#### California.

453. Hershey, A. S. Japanese school question and the treaty-making power. (Amer. pol. scl. rev. May, 1:393-407.)

Did San Francisco's action infringe Japanese treaty rights? Has the Federal · Government the right to interfere with the direction of the public school system of a State or city? Both questions are argued in the negative.

#### District of Columbia.

454. Education in the district of Columbia. (Educ. rev. Feb., 33: 100-20.)

The writer holds that evils and difficulties in effective school administration are inherent in the form of government of the District. The schools are torn between the dual and conflicting powers of Congress and the District board of education.

#### Illinoia.

455. Webster, W. G., ed. The Evanston village high school. 128 p. O. Editor, 702 Rector bldg. Chicago, \$2.

Of interest to the former students or friends of the school.

#### Massachusetts.

456. Spencer, David. School reform in Boston. (Atlantic, July, 100: 45-53.)

Describes the many reforms in administration of the Boston schools which resulted from the reduction of the membership of the school committee from 25

#### New England.

457. Young, W. H. The high schools of New England as judged by the standard of the college certificate board. (School rev. Feb., 15: 134-44.)

Investigates existing conditions in order to determine how successfully the high schools are meeting the college requirements, and expresses the opinion that present methods in New England do not solve the problem of articulation between high school and college. Shows an appalling number of schools below the standard, and suggests that a strongly centralized system of high schools, substituted for the prevalent local autonomy, would remedy present evils. See also No. 458.

458. ——— The standardization of the New England high schools. (School rev. Apr., 15: 278-83.)

The great defect is lack of uniformity. Recommends State inspection, and shows the advantages which would result from its adoption. See also No. 457.

#### Texas.

459. Hartmann, C. G. A study in school supervision with special reference to rural school conditions in Texas. 180 p. Q. (Bulletin of the Univ. of Texas, no. 90.)

#### AUTHOR AND SUBJECT INDEX.

The numbers refer to item, not to page. Anonymous books and articles and periodical titles are not entered, but entries are made for authors of reviews and for the names of persons about whom articles or books are written. References to subjects are printed in small capitals.

Aberdeen university, 369. Abernethy, 113. ACADEMIC PREEDOM, 357, 385. Adams, C. F., 229, 320, 381. Adams, G. B., 382. Adamson, 167. AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION, SECTION 375.63. Ahrens, 177. Ainge, 191. Albertson, 256, Albree, 119. Alden, 401. Alexander, 266. Allen, A. W., 23. Allen, W. H., 161. American academy of medicine, 269. American institute of architects, 299. Anderson, 16, 74, 75. Andrews, 266. APPRENTICESHIP, 256, 267. Archibald, 341. ARCHITECTURAL EDUCATION, 299-800. ARGENTINA, 101. ARITHMETIC, 243-245. Armstrong, 270. ART EDUCATION, SECTION 375.7. Association of American agricultural colleges and experiment stations, 279. Association of American universities, 56. Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the middle states and Maryland, 57. Association of colleges and preparatory schools of the southern states, 58. Association of men teachers and principals of the city of New York, 146. ATHLETICS, SECTION 371.73. AUXILIARY SCHOOLS, 211, 212.

Bagley, 168.
Baker, A. H., 167.
Baker, G. H., 303.
Baker, J. H., 24.
BAPTIST SCHOOLS, 113.
Barbour, 235.

Axon, 187.

Bardeen, 54. Barrows, 96. Bascom, 383. BATAVIA SYSTEM, 168. Battle, 403. Baxter, 101. Beale, 329. Behrend, 246. Bennett, 50. Benson, 314. Berle, 230, 231, Biagi, 188. BIBLIOGRAPHY, 1-22. Bigelow, 241. BIOGRAPHY, 118-129, 335. Birdseye, 384. Bolton, 137, 138, Bookwalter, 256. Boston, School committee, 183. Bray, 26. BRAZIL, 101. Brereton, 315, 316. Bridgham, 217. BROOKS, CHARLES, 119. Brown, E. E., 27, 103. Brown, M. G., 15. Brumbaugh, 96. Bryan, J. E., 212. Bryan, W. J. S., 412. Bruce, 408. Bryce, 311. Buckham, 232. Buffum, 114. Burbank, 28, Burns, 104, 105, 106, 116. Burks, 247, 425. Burstall, 330. BUSINESS EDUCATION, SECTION 375.65.

Cabot, 342,

Calvet, 363.

Catholic educational association, 59. Cauchie, 326. Chabot, 139. Chancellor, 29. Channing, 280. Chapin, 169, 218. CHILD LABOR, 432-438. CHILD STUDY, 5-7, 26, 28, 83, 49, 53. Chrisman, 431. CINCINNATI UNIVERSITY, 397. Citizens' trade school convention, 248. CLASSICAL EDUCATION, 43, 167, 321-325. Clawson, 319. Clay. 192. Coe, 348. COEDUCATION, SECTION 376.7. Cole, 30. Coleman, 4, 80. College entrance exam. board, 409. COLLEGE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK, 398. Compayré, 122, 125, 126, 128, 129, 434. COMMERCIAL EDUCATION, SECTION 875.65. COMPULSORY EDUCATION, 431-433, 449. Comstock, 420. Conference for education in the south, 60. CONTINUATION SCHOOLS, 252, 255, 264. Cooley, 148. Cope, 344. Copeland, 209. Cordell, 402. Corlat, 212. CORPORAL PUNISHMENT, 182. Cotton, 149. Council of supervisors of the manual arts, 176. Coursault. 31. Cox, 32. Cram, 300. Cramer. 350. Creighton, 294, 331. Cronin, 193. Cronson, 210. Crosby, 281.

CURRICULUM, 24, 109, 227-229, 392. Darroch, 33. DAVIDSON, THOMAS, 120. Davis, C. W., 282. Davis, N. F., 410. Davock, 235. De Garmo, 227. De Laguna, 412. de Montmorency, 163. Dean, 248. DEBATING, 313. Delany, 355. Denbigh, 390. DENISON UNIVERSITY, 399. DENMARK, 81. DEPARTMENTAL TEACHING, 169, 171, 173, 218, 221. Derby, 200. Dexter, 407. Dock, 275. DOMESTIC SCIENCE, 294-295.

Crunden, 189.

Douglas, 194.

Draper, 34, 249, 387. Dresslar, 177. Du Bois, 182, 345. Du Pouey, 364. DUBLIN UNIVERSITY, 367. Dumville, 141. Duncan, 259. Dunraven, 87. DURHAM UNIVERSITY, 372. ELECTIVES, 24. Eliot, 357, 428, Elkington, 195. Billott, 429. Ellis, G. W., 95. Bilis, H., 346. Ellwood, 233. Emery, 248. ENGINEERING EDUCATION, 246, 254. ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE, SEC-TION 375.82 AND Nos. 167, 411, 414. Evans, 235. EVANSTON HIGH SCHOOL, 455. Fay, 370. FEEDING SCHOOL CHILDREN, 26, 192. FELLOWS, 250, 420-421. Filene, 298. Findlay, 437. FINLAND, 81. Fish, 266. Fletcher, 147, 150, 419. Foster, M., 438. Foster, W. T., 388. FRANCISCAN SCHOOLS, 106. Freeman, 91. FRENCH, 43, 814-810. Friedel, 83. FROEBEL, 30. Fuld, 201. Garber, 164. Garst, 404. GEOGRAPHY, 328. GERMAN, 319. Gibbs. 328. Gilman, 107. Girls' school yearbook, 332. Godfrey, 89. Golden, 206. GRADUATE WORK, 420-421.

Garber, 164.
Garst, 404.
Garst, 404.
Geography, 328.
Geeman, 319.
Gibbs, 328.
Gilman, 107.
Girls' school yearbook, 332.
Godfrey, 89.
Golden, 296.
Graduate work, 420-421.
Grandgent, 317.
Grant, 202.
Gray, 442.
Great Britain, Education, Board of, 81, 84, 140, 141, 163, 219, 295, 439.
Greek, 320-325.
Greenough, 411.
Greenwood, 228, 305.
Griffiths, 179.
Guarino de Verona, 121.
Gunsaulus, 248.
Hadley, 35.
Hale, 147.

Hall, 421.

Hampton negro conference, 215.

Haney, 251. Hanus, 256. Harnack, 36. Harper, 37. Harris, J. H., 390. Harris, W. T., 38, 170. Hart. 347. Hartmann, 117, 430, 459. Hartwell, 165, 166. Hartog, 306. Harvey, 178. Hayward, 39. Headlam, 167, 366. Heelis, 296. Heilman, 212. HERBART, 30, 39, 43, 122. Herbertson, 167. Hermann, 36. Herrick, 412. Hershey, 453. Hervey, 348. Hetherington, 203, Hill, 224. Hines, 11. Hinitt, 422. HISTORY, 167 AND SECTION 375.9. Holmes, 412. HORACE MANN SCHOOL, 220. Hornbeck, 878. Horne, 398. Howard, E. D., 252. Howard. M. A., 167. Howe, 333. Hutchins, 151, 285.

11es, 283.

Jackman, 162.

ILLINOIS NORMAL UNIVERSITY, 400.
ILLITERACY, 34.
Indian rights association, 216.
INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, SECTIONS 371.42
AND 375.6.
International kindergarten union, 223.
IRELAND, 87, 88, 367, 440.
ITALIAN, 318.
Ittner, 248.
Ives, 301.

Jackson, D. C., 254.
Jackson, S., 79.
Jackson, W. W., 368.
Japanese scholars in California, 453.
Jastrow, 159, 297.
Jesuit schools, 105.
Jewell, 1, 284.
Johnson, C., 108.
Johnson, C. E., 302.
Johnson, G. E., 20, 204.
Jolly, 40.
Jones, A. J., 9, 255.
Jordan, 358.
Judson, 422.
JUVENILE DELINQUENTS, 212-214.

Kandall, 440. . Keatinge, 51. Kehew, 256. Kelsey, 321. Kennelly, 25. Kern, 819. Keyes, 160, 177. Kikerchi. 94. Kilpatrick, 171, 221. KINDERGARTEN, SECTION 372.2. King, 321. Kingsbury, 256. KING'S COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, 870. Kirkpatrick, 224. Kling, 248. Knight, 120. Kraus-Boelté, . 224. Krüsi, 123. Ladd, 142. Lake Mobonk conference, 216a. Lang, 130. Langdon, 306. LANGUAGE TEACHING, 237. Larned, 327. LATIN, 320-325. Latter, 285. LAVAL UNIVERSITY, 362. Lawler, 96. Lawson, 374, 441. Lawton, 318. Leach, 225. Lefavour, 298. LEGAL EDUCATION, 234-236. LELAND STANFORD JUNIOR UNIVERSITY, 401. Leonard. 22. Levasseur, 85. Lexis, 323. LIBRARIES AND SCHOOLS, 187-190. Lindsay, 97. Lockyer, 41. Lodge, 349. Logan, 307. LONDON UNIVERSITY, 873. Long, 272. Loos, 12. Lord, 362. Low, 100. Lowell, 389. Lowman, A., 293. Lowman, G. S., 205,

McAndrew, 152. MacClintock, 308. McClure, William, 110. McCormick, 121. MacDowell, 190. McEvoy, 76. McGill university, 362. McMillan, 196. Maennel, 3, 211. MAGDALEN COLLEGE, OXFORD, 379. Magill, 124. Magnus, 42. Mahony, 172. Mahy, 309. Mann, C. R., 238. MANN, HORACE, 125. Manual training, 49, 176-178. Marriott, 375.

Marshall, 256, 334. MARYLAND UNIVERSITY, 402. Massachusetts. Commission on industrial education, 257. MATHEMATICS, 242-245. Matheson, 141. Matthews, 43. Maxwell, 449. Medd, 286, 287. MEDICAL EDUCATION, SECTION 375.61. MEDICAL INSPECTION, SECTION 371.7. Mellen, 118. Meriwether, 109. MERTON COLLEGE, OXFORD, 380. Michigan schoolmasters' club. 63. Milis, 224. MODERN LANGUAGES, 43, 167, AND SECTION 375.84. Moffatt, 147. Monroe, 64, 93, 102, 110. Mosenthal, 398.

National association of manufacturers, 258. National education association, 66, 67, 143, 259.

MUSICAL EDUCATION, SECTION 375.78.

National society for the promotion of industrial education, 260.

National society for the scientific study of education, 68, 224, 412.

National union of teachers, 69.

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY, 24.

NATURE STUDY, 241, 281, 284-285, 287-288. NEEF, JOSEPH, 110.

NEGROES, SECTION 371.94.

NEW COLLEGE, OXFORD, 377.

Newcomb, 206, 243,

Myers, G. E., 350.

Myers, G. W., 242.

New York city teachers' association, 131. New York (state)—Associated academic

principals, 70.

New York committee on physical welfare of school children, 197.

New York (state)—Education department, 71, 288.

New York state association of school commissioners and superintendents, 72.

New York state science teachers' association, 239.

NORMAL SCHOOLS, SECTION 371.12. NORTH CAROLINA UNIVERSITY, 403.

NORWAY, 81.

Nunn, 167.

Nursing, 274-275.

Nutting, 274-275.

O'Shea, 237. Olsen, 184. OTTERBEIN UNIVERSITY, 404. Owen, 44. OXFORD UNIVERSITY, 368, 874-380.

Page, T. E., 322. Page, T. W., 424. Page, W. H., 248. Paine, 335. Palmer, 132. Pardee, 425. Parker, 45. Paulsen, 86, 323, 336. PEABODY FUND, 107. Person, 261, 359. PESTALOZZI, 1-10, 126. PHI BETA KAPPA, 209. PHYSICAL EDUCATION, SECTION 371.73. PHYSICS. 413. Pierce, 18. PLAY, 23, 204. Poole, 167. Prentis, 397. Prettyman, 412. Prickard, 377. Pritchett, 256. PSYCHOLOGY, 50-53. PUBLIC SPEAKING, 313. PUNCTUATION, 307.

QUEENS UNIVERSITY, 362.

Raymond, 405. READING, 311. Reich, 46. Rein, 73. RHODES SCHOLARSHIPS, 378. Richards, C. R., 17, 256, 262, 266. Richards, H. M., 198. Roberts, 25. Robertson, 310. Rogers, C. F., 352. Rogers, H. J., 428. Rollins, 263, 413. ROMAN CATHOLIC SCHOOLS, 59, 104-106, 116, 362-363, Rooper, 47, 127. Roosevelt, 289. Rouse, 167, 324. ROUSSEAU, 128. Ruedeger, 144, 436. Rugh, 350. RUBKIN ON EDUCATION, 40.

Sachs, 173, 339. Sadler, M. E., 10, 264, 443, 444, 445, 446. Sadler, S. H., 360. ST. JOHNS COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE, 371. Salmon, 391, 450. Sargent, 207. Saville, 141. Scholz, 378. SCHOOL EXCURSIONS, 163. SCHOOL GARDENS, 284-285, 287, 293. Schoolmasters' yearbook, 447. Schwarz, 52. SCIENCE, 238-240. SCOTLAND, 90. Scott, R. F., 371. Scott, W. D., 199. Sée, 337. Semon, 276. Shields, 338. Simkhovitch, 99. Sisson, 353. SLATER FUND, 107.

Smith, 5. Snedden, 21, 213, 214. Snow. 8, 392. Snowden, 265. SOCIOLOGY, 233. Somerville, 290. Spalding, 235. Spaulding, 134, 311. Spencer, D., 456. SPENCER, H., 129. Starbuck, 350. Starr, 235.

Stebbins, 354. Stevenson, 350.

Stewardson, 208.

Stillman, 153.

STOCKTON METHODS, 175.

Storms, 48. Stratton, 267.

Strong, 90. Sullivan, 433.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS, 341, 344, 354.

Sutton, 145. SWEDEN, 81.

Tanner, A. E., 154. Tanner, G. W., 312, 414.

Tatton, 127. Taylor, 390.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION, SECTIONS 371.42 AND 375.6.

Teetgen, 98.

TEMPERANCE TEACHING, 271.

Theobald, 174.

THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION, 230-232.

Thomas, 222. Thompson, 180.

Thorndike, 181, 451.

Thornton, 81.

Tilley, 244. Tombo, 393, 394.

Tormay, 292. TORONTO UNIVERSITY, 362.

Town, 212.

TRADE SCHOOLS, 248-249, 256, 258, 264, 268.

TRINITY COLLEGE, DUBLIN, 367.

Trueblood, 313. Tucker, 277.

Tuell, 135. Turner, 77.

Tyler, 13, 49.

United States Bureau of Education, 34, 111. Union university, 405.

Urwick, 53. Utley, 115.

VACATION SCHOOLS, 163.

Van Cleave, 248. Van Hise, 340.

Van Noé, 319.

Van Sickle, 155.

Van Storm, 136.

Vance, 236.

Vanderlip, 266, 268, 361.

Vandewalker, 224.

Wade, 270.

Walsh, 78.

Warner, 256. Warren, 379.

WARWICK SCHOOL, 225.

Washburn, 6. Watkins, 293. Webster, 455.

Wendell, 365.

Wenley, 395. Wenner, 355.

WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY, 406.

West, 396.

WHEATON, E. B., 335.

White, 380.

Wight, 415. Wilde, 356.

Williams, W. R., 278.

Williams, W. T. B., 215.

Wilson, 7, 298.

Winterburn, 175.

Wisconsin, department of education, 186.

Witmer, 212.

WOMAN'S EDUCATION, 27, 329-340.

Woodhull, 240.

Woods, 25, 256, 266. Woolman, 256.

Wyer, 14, 15.

YALE UNIVERSITY, 407.

Young, E. F., 112.

Young, J. T., 298. Young, J. W. A., 19, 245.

Young, W. H., 416, 457, 458.

Yoxall, 442.

Zimmern, 368.

# MUSIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

# SCHOOLS AND DEPARTMENTS OF MUSIC

By ARTHUR L. MANCHESTER

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# CONTENTS.

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL	Page.
Foreword	7
I. Historical development	11
Beginnings of formal music education	11
Schools and conservatories of music	14
Departments of music in colleges, etc	15
Progress made	16
Works on the history of music in America	16
II. Results of the inquiry	17
Incorporation of schools	18
Instructors and subjects taught	18
Students enrolled	19
Nature and scope of subjects	20
Illustrative curricula	21
Correlation of music and non-music courses	40
Manner of advancing students from grade to grade	41
Educational qualifications of music students	42
Property devoted to musical instruction	42
III. Statistical tables	43
IV. Past and present tendencies	77
V. Conclusion	82
References to works on musical education	83
Index	85
3	

# LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, June 23, 1908.

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith the manuscript of a report on the present status of music education in the United States, prepared by Prof. Arthur L. Manchester, of Converse College, South Carolina, and to recommend its publication in the Bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

This report has been prepared in accordance with an urgent recommendation of the Music Teachers' National Association, conveyed through the president of that organization, Prof. Waldo S. Pratt, of the Hartford Theological Seminary. Professor Manchester, who had been appointed by the executive committee of that association as chairman of the committee to consider the gathering of statistics concerning music education in the United States, kindly consented to edit this report for the Bureau of Education. The detailed information upon which it is based was collected through the statistical division of this office in cooperation with Professor Manchester.

The growing recognition of music as an essential part of our plan of public education, and a peculiarly rich and vital part of our public education, emphasizes the need of such information as is embodied in this report. The latest publication of this kind issued by the Bureau of Education was that which appeared in the year 1886. The subject is so large that unfortunately it has been found impracticable to include in the paper here submitted an account of music as taught in our public elementary schools. This part of the subject is reserved for later treatment.

Very respectfully,

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, Commissioner.

The Secretary of the Interior.

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#### FOREWORD.

In no profession or field of educational activity is there available so meager an amount of accurate data upon which to base plans for future development or to use in the determination of results achieved as in that of music. There is no coherence in the general scheme of music education, and there can be none while so little is known concerning what is done in the field of musical endeavor. To define the status of music education in the United States has been practically impossible. The utter lack of systematic courses of instruction, the widely varying standards of merit, and the absence of cooperation upon the part of those engaged in music teaching not only have made impossible any accurate computation of the results which have accrued from music education, but are serious obstacles in the way of future development.

Musicians are not yet fully agreed among themselves as to what constitutes music education. The definition still varies according to the standpoint of the definer. The composer, the performer, the theorist, the pedagogue, will each interpret it in the light of his own specialty. It is this lack of system, this indefiniteness of aim, that have repelled those who mold educational opinion, and have caused them to withhold from music that educational value which its votaries claim for it, but which has been obscured by the desultory nature of music instruction. Yet, despite this serious defect, its claims have impressed thoughtful investigators. This lack of system could not entirely hide the evidences of good work being done, and the desire for a more complete and exact knowledge of what is really being accomplished, of the real status of music education in this country, has been felt not only by members of the musical profession, but by those interested in educational movements generally.

It is known that large sums are expended annually for music instruction, that many students and teachers are engaged in it; but what its real proportions are, to what extent it is becoming systematized, what attitude independent schools of music and institutions having music departments maintain toward it, just how serious is the purpose of those who are active in the musical profession, what grade of work is demanded by institutions that announce graduate courses of study, and how these grades are determined are questions

to which satisfactory answers are not now to be given. It is to supply data for the determining of these points that the present inquiry is undertaken. It is not the intention of this inquiry to give decisions as to any point at issue; it simply proposes to lay before those interested certain accurate and authoritative information upon which they may base their own judgment.

The field to be covered is too large to be included in a single inquiry. The scope of this investigation, therefore, is confined to music education in independent schools of music and in institutions maintaining music departments. It is obvious that that largest of all fields, the work of the private teacher, could not be included in this inquiry, and it was thought best to begin the gathering of musical statistics with the work done in the institutions which really dominate educational policies, musical and otherwise.

The purpose is to secure definite information regarding:

- 1. The organization of and manner of conducting these schools and departments.
- 2. The number of instructors employed, with branches taught, and number of hours per week devoted by each instructor to instruction in each subject.
- 3. Number of students enrolled, with requirements for entrance, and the shortest period for which students are received.
- 4. The nature and scope of subjects included in the curriculum, with requirements as to time devoted to each, requirements for graduation (with or without degree) or for certificate, and the number of students who have received such degrees or certificates within a definite period of years.
- 5. The manner of advancing students from grade to grade, with methods of examination and marking.
  - 6. The correlation of music and nonmusic courses.
- 7. Amount expended on music instruction and value of plants devoted to musical purposes.
- 8. Existence of libraries, with number of books contained therein, and number of museums of musical instruments, with information as to their size and character.

Two questionnaires were prepared, and were sent by the Bureau of Education to—

Independent schools of music, Colleges and universities, Colleges for women, Normal schools, and Secondary schools.

The lists of these institutions were gathered from various sources, about 3,500 receiving the first questionnaire. The second was sent only to those whose replies to the first indicated that they could satisfactorily furnish certain additional information.

This inquiry being the first of its kind, difficulties were met for the solution of which no precedents were available. To be authoritative and reliable it must be discriminating, yet it had no power officially to settle the many vexed questions certain to arise during the course

of the investigation. Among the points which came up for settlement at the outset were:

What shall be the standard of equipment and efficiency demanded to insure listing in the report?

What really constitutes a "school of music?" a

What distinction shall be made between schools conducted solely for profit, and those whose aim primarily is educational?

How shall these standards and distinctions be determined?

These are important questions. Their settlement affects the value of the inquiry, yet the statistician has no authority to pronounce judgment.

It was decided, therefore, that in preparing the questionnaires for the inquiry effort should be made so to frame the questions that the answers to them, if properly given, would practically determine these points, the statistics, when published, furnishing evidence to discriminating readers regarding the work done by the institutions replying to the inquiries. To this end, the questions relating to organization and management of finances; to instructors, students, courses of study; to graduation requirements and correlation of courses, musical and nonmusical; to methods of examination and of determining grades, were given particular attention, and have proved to be effective in drawing out the information desired. As was intended, the replies are significant, not only for the precise information they give, but equally so for indicating the attitude of the institutions toward music education.

Naturally, a first inquiry expends much of its effort in breaking ground. Indifference, and even positive disinclination to supply information are met; yet it is hoped that the statistics secured not only will supply definite information heretofore lacking, but will also contribute something, at least, toward the coordination of music schools and uniformity in their courses of study, and be of assistance to those who are striving to have music placed on an equal footing in the scheme of education with other subjects in the curriculum.

Acknowledgment is made to Prof. Waldo S. Pratt, of the Hartford Theological Seminary, and to Prof. F. A. Parker, of the University of Wisconsin, for assistance in securing data.

ARTHUR L. MANCHESTER.

SPARTANBURG, S. C., June 1, 1908.



a Iliustrative of the complexity of this question is an instance called to my attention in the course of correspondence concerning this phase of the report. A "Conservatory of Music," with a title national in character, consisted of one back room on the upper floor of a city building, access to it being had amidst a rather forbidding conglomeration of rubbish. The faculty consisted of one teacher—the proprietor. There was not even an attempt at well-defined, coordinated courses of study. Yet it had taken to itself a high-sounding title, and posed as a school of music. This "institution" is long since dead, but there are many others still in existence, masquerading under similar names.

# THE STATUS OF MUSIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

# I. HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

In order to an understanding of the present status of music in the United States a careful study of the different elements which have united to produce present conditions is necessary. Music is complex: it has its scientific, æsthetic, pedagogic, and cultural aspects, each also complex in character and providing material for serious and long-continued study, each influencing the development of the others. And in proportion as emphasis is laid upon one or the other it is given a bent of development having a strong bearing upon the symmetrical unfolding of the art of music as a whole. So many factors are thus present in the cultivation of music that for the establishment of a thoroughly efficient system of music education the utmost care is essential to the preservation of the proper balance between Instrumental music, including various instruments and the orchestra: vocal music, including solo singing, choral singing, opera, and oratorio: theory, including grammar, form (architectural structure), and composition; the meaning of music as exemplified in these various manifestations; and last, but far from least, the state of musical taste among the people, are factors which must be understood, for they are capable of pedagogic treatment. It is readily seen that the teaching of any one phase of music should be conducted with the reciprocal nature of all musical effort clearly kept in view, yet the failure of musicians in this respect is shown in the history of music education from its beginning until within the last ten years.

It would be well if the historical summary which follows could enter enough into detail to give a more complete view of music history in this country, but the limits of the work forbid, admitting only such facts as bear upon the development of its pedagogic side. In order that those who may wish to pursue the subject further may do so, a bibliography of the history of music in America is subjoined.

#### BEGINNINGS OF FORMAL MUSIC EDUCATION.

Formal music education has been developed chiefly through the activities of private teachers, independent music schools, and the

teaching of music in the public schools and in colleges and universities. Efforts in all these directions have been influenced and modified by the establishment of orchestras and smaller bodies of instrumentalists in various cities, and the introduction of opera in a few of the largest cities in the country; but regarding these proceedings present limits forbid the entering into detail. Formal music education began with the institution of singing schools, whose purpose was the improvement of church music by teaching youths and adults to sing by note. They were doubtless stimulated by an increasing interest in church music growing out of the crude psalmody of the Their educational value was small, those who conducted them possessing slight musical equipment. Their social features had more to do with their popularity than their educational advantages. They were peripatetic, moving about from place to place. Despite their weaknesses they stimulated desire for better things, and the interest they aroused resulted in the formation of choral societies. which later developed into permanent bodies between which and the music festival a direct relation can be traced. The first of these societies was that at Stoughton, Mass., which had its beginning in 1786 and which still exists. In 1815 the Handel and Haydn Society of Boston was founded. This society exerted an increasing influence on musical progress, and is still in existence, its records forming a valuable contribution to the history of musical development.

Musical conventions, which are still held in various parts of the South, were a combination of the old singing school and the choral society. Held in some convenient center, they attracted participants from quite considerable distances. At the conclusion of a more or less serious series of lessons in note reading and the rudiments of music, a concert was usually given, which the public was invited to patronize—largely for the benefit of the conductor. While the work of these conventions was lacking in finish, greater good was accomplished by them than we in this day are prone to give them credit for.

The value of these early efforts lay principally in their direct contact with the people. The modicum of musical instruction provided by them broke ground for later and more pretentious instruction and led to the discussion of methods of teaching, but was less influential than the spreading of musical culture among the people which ensued.

With the growth of interest in music naturally came the effort to train children in the rudiments of music, and a number of pioneers in this field began work early. N. D. Gould, of Boston, organized classes for children in 1824, or earlier, as William Tuckey had previously done in connection with the charity school attached to Trinity Church in New York about 1753. But the title of founder of this phase of music teaching really belongs to Lowell Mason, who went

to Boston from Savannah in 1827. He was better qualified for the work he undertook, not only by reason of his musical equipment, but also because of his study of the Pestalozzian principles of teaching and his possession of marked zeal and personal magnetism. ideas as to the place of music in general education were definite and advanced. In 1832 he organized the Boston Academy of Music, outlining plans for the promotion of music education in various wavs. including the instruction of children and the establishment of normal courses for teachers. This institution soon attracted 1,500 pupils, a significant indication of an awakening interest which needed only well-directed efforts for its rapid advancement. His labors culminated in 1836 in permission from the authorities for trial classes in certain public schools in Boston. The results were so satisfactory that in 1838 Mason was placed in charge permanently. He continued in this service, however, only until 1841, when he was succeeded by B. B. Baker. Mason's normal classes attracted teachers from a wide area, and efforts based upon his methods were initiated in several other States in the East.

New York was also taking steps in the direction of teaching music to children. In 1835 Darius E. Jones taught for some time in one of the city schools with sufficient success to insure permission to continue at the option of the local board, provided no expense was incurred and regular studies were not interfered with. Attempts to gain a definite place for musical instruction, however, were not successful, no effective recognition of music being given until about 1853. The earnestness of its advocates was indicated by their willingness to provide the first pianos introduced in the New York schools by paying for them themselves or by means of concerts given by the children.<sup>a</sup> Efforts in Cincinnati, where Lowell Mason's brother, T. B. Mason, organized music classes similar to those in Boston, eventuated in the introduction of regular instruction in the public schools under the direction of William Colburn. Pittsburg dates the beginning of its instruction in music about 1840. N. D. Gould, to whom reference has already been made, states in his book, Church Music in America. that he was active in establishing singing schools in Massachusetts. New Hampshire, Rhode Island, New York, and New Jersey from about 1820, and especially after 1830. Of these labors he was very proud, expressing extreme satisfaction that he could look back upon the fact that he was the first to introduce the formal teaching of children to sing.

Such were the beginnings of what, after the interruption of the civil war, which seriously retarded efforts of this nature, became the



a See paper by George F. Bristow in Proceedings of the Music Teachers' National Association for 1885.

great public school system of music education. Devoted as these men were to the work they had entered upon, there was sown even at this early date the seeds of that misunderstanding and narrowness of view which have been prominent in music education during all its history in this country. Conflict between these teachers, who based their work on the psalmody of the period, and those professional musicians who cultivated music as an art, began to develop at once, and a mutual depreciation arose.

With the practice of music, in its earliest stages, largely vocal, there was comparatively little demand for the services of teachers of instruments; but with the growth of musical taste, the making of pianos, and the cultivation of orchestral music, the number of trained musicians engaged in teaching gradually increased in the eastern cities, until there were scattered about in various parts of the country a sufficient number to produce a marked impression upon the art ideals of the country. This number was largely increased and its influence strengthened by the settlement in America of refugees from Europe during the decade from 1840 to 1850, and after the civil war it became an important factor in music education. The diversity of interests of those engaged in teaching, the conflict of opinion as to what should hold the most important place in the development of music, and the great increase in the number who took to teaching it as an easy way in which to make a living or secure pocket money, soon resulted in confusion and the setting up of false standards, which exerted a baneful influence on the whole system of music education.

#### SCHOOLS AND CONSERVATORIES OF MUSIC.

The early enterprises which might be dignified by the name of schools were of doubtful character and were devoted solely to the rudiments of music, and, in all probability, were given an impetus by singing classes. The first music school in the true sense was that projected by Eben Touriée, of Fall River, Mass., and put into operation at East Greenwich. R. I., in 1859. Later, Touriée started a conservatory at Providence, and, in 1867, founded the institution that, in 1870, was incorporated as the New England Conservatory of Music. Before this (in 1863) he had spent some time in Europe investigating methods there and studying with Haupt and other prominent teachers. His ideas were progressive and sound, and his talent for organization enabled him to carry them out with good effect. He was the first to introduce class instruction in other subjects than singing. His perception of the interrelation of the various branches of the musical art was clear, and it was his purpose to work out a well coordinated curriculum. The New England Conservatory has stood for serious music study ever since, and has grown in size and influence until it is probably the best known institution of the kind in America.

Many institutions, with similar aims and established about the same time or at later periods, have become integral parts of the American musical education system, exerting great influence on American music life. Among them may be mentioned the Boston Conservatory of Music, established by Julius Eichberg (1867); the Chicago College of Music, Ziegfeld (1867); the Cincinnati Conservatory of Music, Miss Baur (1867); the Oberlin Conservatory of Music (1867), now incorporated with Oberlin College; the Philadelphia Musical Academy (1869); Dana's Musical Institute at Warren, Ohio (1869); the Cleveland Conservatory of Music (1871); the Detroit Conservatory of Music (1875), and others of later founding. With these have sprung into existence a host of independent schools calling themselves conservatories, local in influence, whose methods of procedure and artistic ideals vary according to the purposes of their founders. Some of them doubtless are sincere in their aims. and strive to do work as thorough as their resources permit; but in too many cases mercenary motives are behind their establishment, and their entire workings are dictated by a commercial spirit.

#### DEPARTMENTS OF MUSIC IN COLLEGES, ETC.

The institution of departments of music in colleges is so intermingled with the founding of these independent schools that no sharp line of distinction can be drawn as to their early history. Here, too, the motives animating those concerned have been mixed. While serious educational aims have inspired some, in many instances expediency has ruled the situation, and the treatment of music education in colleges, particularly those for women, and in secondary schools has been one of confusion, and, too often, of low standards. The larger institutions are notable exceptions. As early as 1837 a society known as the Harvard Musical Association, composed of alumni of Harvard College, announced as its ultimate object—

The advancement of the cause of music, particularly in this university. We would have it regarded as an important object of attention within its walls, as something which sooner or later must hold its place in every liberal system of education—and that place not accidental or a stolen one, but formally recognized. We that love music feel that it is worthy of its professorship, as well as any other science.

This statement, quoted by Ritter in his "Music in America," is a forerunner of many such avowals in recent years. While the object was not immediately realized, nearly thirty-five years elapsing before Harvard fully met the desires of its promoters, the time

has come when not only in that university but in others such recognition is accorded. But it was not until 1860 that a movement in that direction was made, and then it was step by step. First an instructor in music was permitted to do some teaching in certain subjects as an irregular part of the curriculum. Notable instances are Harvard, with John K. Paine, who began his work in 1862, reaching a full professorship in 1876; Oberlin College, Fenelon B. Rice, in 1869; Vassar College, Frederic Louis Ritter, in 1867; the University of Pennsylvania, Prof. Hugh A. Clarke, in 1875. Then came the granting of credit for certain courses in music toward the degree of A. B., Harvard taking the lead in 1870. Next followed the final step of granting credit toward entrance for musical qualifications, which has been taken only within the past six or eight years.

#### PROGRESS MADE.

The steps in the development of formal music education here concisely stated have occupied more than a century in the taking. If the progress made during that time does not compare favorably with that in other fields of educational effort, it should be remembered that many incentives so prominent in the others have here been lacking. Music has not been considered so vital a part of the political. moral, and social life of the nation as those arts upon which depends the earning capacity of individuals. Not only were its exponents compelled to clarify their own views concerning its purposes and methods, to find themselves, in short, but also to make head against a public opinion dominated by strong utilitarian ideals. The absence of unifying agencies has weakened, and too often nullified, the efforts of musicians, leaving them solitary and unsupported in their attempts to build up an educational music system. Yet, unsatisfactory as are many present conditions, the change from the unmusical psalm singing of the Puritans, the ambitious rather than musically satisfying concert performances of fifty years ago, and the low state of musical taste of a large part of the nineteenth century, to the artistic concerts, the immense attendance upon public performances, and the higher state of musical culture and critical acumen of the people now witnessed, is indicative of a long stride forward.

#### WORKS ON THE HISTORY OF MUSIC IN AMERICA.

Those who wish to investigate more fully the growth of music and music education in the United States are referred to the following publications, and to the list of works on music education on pages 83-84:

Brooks, Henry Mason. Olden-time music; a compilation from newspapers and books.
With an introduction by Professor Edward S. Morse. . . . Boston, Ticknor and company, 1888. [ix] xx, 283 p., front., illus. 12°.

"The design of this work is to give some account of music in 'ye olden time' in New England."—Pref.

- Elson, Louis Charles. The history of American music. With twelve full-page photogravures and one hundred and two illustrations in the text. New York, London, The Macmillan company, 1904. xiii, 380 p., incl. illus., plates, ports., front. 4°. (The history of American art, ed. by J. C. Van Dyke.)

  "General bibliography," pages 367-368.
- [Howe, Granville L.] ed. A hundred years of music in America. An account of musical effort in America during the past century . . . together with historical and biographical sketches of important personalities. W. S. B. Mathews, associate ed. Chicago, G. L. Howe, 1889. ix, 6-715 p., illus. (incl. ports., facsims.). 8°.
- Music Teachers' National Association. Papers and proceedings, 28th annual meeting, Oberlin, Ohio, June 26-29, 1906. [Hartford, Conn.] published by the association, 1906. 200 p. 8°.
- ———— 29th annual meeting, Columbia University, New York City, Dec. 27-31, 1907. [Hartford, Conn.] published by the association, 1908. 284 p. 8°.
- Ritter, Frédéric Louis. Music in America. New ed., with additions. New York, C. Scribner's sons, 1890. xiv, 521 p. 8°.

"Musical examples," pages 508-513.

- Ryan, Thomas. Recollections of an old musician. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1899. xvi, 274 p., pl., port. 8°.
- Sonneck, Oscar George Theodore. Early concert-life in America (1731–1800). Leipzig, Breitkopf & Hartel, 1907. 338 p. 4°.

  Bibliographical footnotes.

# II.—RESULTS OF THE INQUIRY.

The statistical tables contained in this work are based on questionnaires sent out by the Bureau of Education in 1907. Replies were received from 1.088 institutions. Of these, 381 gave no information which could be used, or were not organized institutions; 112 colleges, normal schools, and universities reported no music departments maintained; the remaining 595 furnished more or less completely the information desired. Financial statements were not made by 348 of this number. The resulting statistics have been classified so that the tabulations for independent schools of music, colleges and universities, colleges for women, normal schools, and secondary schools appear separately. A study of tables 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10 will show that the most important institutions in each class are represented. With perhaps two or three exceptions, all the leading independent schools of music are included. In each of the other classes institutions most influential in educational work have responded. In the 1906 Report of the Commissioner of Education, 577 institutions of higher education. not including schools of technology, are reported as replying to the inquiries of the Bureau. Two hundred and eight of these institutions, including those of highest rank, have responded to this first specific inquiry for detailed statistics regarding music instruction. It is fair to believe, therefore, that the statistics herein given truthfully reflect the conditions now existing in organized music education.

## INCORPORATION OF SCHOOLS.

It will be noted that of the 595 schools reporting, 281 are incorporated, 170 not incorporated, and 144 do not reply to this question. The following table gives this information in detail:

Class of institutions.	Incorporated.	Not incorpo- rated.	Not report- ing.	Total.
Independent schools of music. Colleges and universities. Colleges for womeh. Normal schools. Secondary schools.	30	34 37 2 29 68	3 49 7 29 46	61 151 57 96 228
Total	281	170	144	595

In schools which are not incorporated the financial management is usually in the hands of the director or proprietor. In the majority of cases the director and proprietor are one.

# INSTRUCTORS AND SUBJECTS TAUGHT.

The total number of instructors in independent music schools reporting is 607. The number in each school varies from one to fifty-six. In many schools specialists and lecturers are called upon for special instruction, giving only a few hours a week to the institution. The hours per week devoted to their respective schools by individual instructors range from two to sixty. The average number for each instructor in the schools reporting is twenty. The subjects taught refer mainly to performance and composition and professional training. The various instruments, voice culture and singing, and theoretical subjects, with more or less attention to esthetics, comprise their curricula. In the largest conservatories modern languages are taught as a part of courses in singing, and dramatic action and operatic repertoire are given considerable attention. Technique, interpretation, and repertoire are the chief desiderata.

Of 334 universities and colleges for both sexes and colleges for women responding to the inquiry, 95 report no departments of music. In many of these glee clubs and orchestras are maintained by the students, but no specific instruction is given. The number of instructors engaged in 208 of these institutions is 974. The number of hours per week devoted by each to instruction ranges from two to forty. The majority give practically their entire time to the institution with which they are connected. The average number of hours per week for each instructor is twenty and one-half.

The subjects taught are the same as in independent schools of music. Instruction is given in practical music, from elementary work to concert playing and singing, theoretical subjects, history of music, and esthetics. While each is organically connected with its college or

university, educationally the tie binding them in the majority of cases is elastic, and they are managed as independent music schools, with the same musical aims and ideals. In universities and colleges of the highest grade, however, theoretical subjects, including harmony, counterpoint, canon, fugue, and composition are the institutional courses, practical music being totally ignored in some, and only incidentally cultivated in others. In them, as well as in a considerable number of smaller institutions, musical appreciation, including form and analysis, is offered as a regular course.

Replies were received from 130 normal schools, 98 giving statistics which could be embodied in this report. Vocal music, with especial reference to its use in the public schools, is the leading subject, many schools maintaining no regularly organized music departments. In those which do, the subjects and methods and aims of instruction are similar to those in the institutions already mentioned. Two hundred and twenty-five instructors are reported as engaged in giving music instruction in normal schools.

A statement of the work in secondary schools would be a recapitulation of what has already been said, with the addition that the standards of excellence and efficiency do not as a rule compare favorably with those in the institutions of higher education. the 228 schools reporting, 46 per cent employ one or two instructors whose entire time is given to the institution and whose duties are to give instruction in piano, singing, organ, violin, and theory. There are schools among the number reporting which have well-organized departments and well conceived courses of study. In some mention is made of the advantages accruing from the study of music in connection with subjects in the literary departments, and in a few instances the completion of a high-school course of at least three years is required before graduation in music. Attention here, as in many institutions in the other classes, is directed mainly to performance, with some emphasis on theoretical subjects. The number of instructors reported is 700.

## STUDENTS ENROLLED.

The total number of students enrolled is 77,359. According to the Report of the Commissioner of Education, the enrollment of students in colleges and universities for 1907 was 149,700. The enrollment of music students in 208 of these institutions was 26,743, over 17 per cent of the entire number. Entrance requirements exist in very few instances. The shortest period for which students are received is five weeks in certain of the independent schools. The majority of schools do not receive students for a shorter period than ten weeks. In colleges and universities the shortest period is one

term or semester. The following table gives the number of music instructors and students in 1907, and the number of graduates and students receiving certificates in the last five years:

Class of institutions.	Schools report- ing.	Instruc- tors.	Students.	Graduates in last 5 years.	Students receiving certificates in last 5 years.
Independent schools of music. Colleges and universities. Colleges for women. Normal schools. Secondary schools.	151 57 98	607 680 294 225 700	17, 122 18, 971 7, 772 18, 994 . 14, 500	1,962 1,652 491 653 634	1,971 633 323 86 636
Total	595	2,506	77,859	5, 392	3,649

# NATURE AND SCOPE OF SUBJECTS.

An examination of the music courses offered by the institutions replying to this inquiry classifies them into—

Theoretical and æsthetic courses, Practical or applied courses, Cultural courses.

To the first class belong all such subjects as foundation principles, harmony, counterpoint, canon, fugue, composition, form, history of music, and orchestration; to the second, all courses in the mastery of any instrument and of singing, and to the third, those courses offered for the purpose of developing an appreciation of music, including foundation principles, enough of the grammar and form of music to give an understanding of its structure, history, and analysis of compositions.

The scope of these courses varies with the resources and seriousness of purpose of the institutions offering them. In those of the highest rank, they are well planned, carefully coordinated, and thoroughly carried out. In independent schools of music there are no entrance requirements. In a number of leading colleges a knowledge of rudiments is demanded as an entrance requirement. already been indicated, in a large majority of institutions the courses in practical music occupy the foremost place in the curriculum. This is so largely the case that it can truly be said that the nature and scope of music education is still chiefly confined to the development of a greater or less degree of virtuosity in performance, with a considerable amount of attention given to instruction in foundation and theoretical principles. Many independent schools of music, it is true, and a large number of colleges and universities, and a smaller number of secondary schools demand work of the most exacting nature; their courses are thorough, comprehensive within their limits, and at their completion reach a high standard of artistic excellence. But in the greater number of institutions of all classes

the coordination of courses has not reached so satisfactory a stage, and performance overshadows all else, the standards here also differing considerably.

The time required for the completion of these courses indicates their nature and scope. Some institutions offer certificates at the end of two years of instruction; others on completion of a stated portion of the regular course for graduation. Some schools name from three to seven years as necessary for graduation; others, again, give no time limit, setting instead a standard of accomplishment which must satisfactorily be met before graduation.

## ILLUSTRATIVE CURRICULA.

It is obvious that the educational value of a course of study does not lie in a statement of its requirements, however comprehensive and systematic that may be. A paper course may be a model of excellence, but unless its provisions are properly carried out and its requirements strictly met, its worth educationally is nil. It is certain that too great differences in standards exist in schools offering practically the same courses. Hence the mere cataloguing of courses is not a criterion as to the educational status of the schools offering them. Yet the following curricula, offered by representative institutions, whose standing is such as to assure intelligent enforcement of course requirements, are significant as showing the care which is being taken by institutions of serious purpose to properly coordinate the various branches of musical instruction into a comprehensive educational scheme. The fact that these curricula are typical is indicative of widespread efforts on the part of musical educators to provide such schemes of music education, and gives evidence of a purpose which, in time, must also bring about a greater uniformity of standards.

The curricula cited are offered by certain universities and colleges and independent music schools representative of those which have replied to the inquiries of this investigation. They illustrate the purely theoretical courses offered by institutions which do not give instruction in practical music and by those which combine theory and practice. The curricula from independent music schools are from a metropolitan conservatory with ample resources and from a smaller school, located in a small city, which is typical of the larger number of such institutions. Entrance requirements are given where such exist, and the entrance requirements of one institution, which stands almost alone in this particular, are given in full.

The first two courses are offered by independent schools of music—the first by one with a good endowment and large receipts from tuition; the second from a conservatory which is dependent upon its tuition fees alone for support.

### CURRICULUM MO. 1.

### LIST OF SUBJECTS TO BE TAUGHT.

Acoustics.

Conducting.

Elements of music (notation, rhythm, etc.).

Ensemble playing.

History and æsthetics of music.

Interpretation, instrumental and vocal.

Languages in their relation to music.

Music dictation.

Music form and analysis.

Music pedagogy in all its branches.

Opera singing.

Oratorio singing.

Organ playing.

Organ structure.

Pianoforte playing.

Score reading and playing from the old clefs.

Sight singing and sight playing.

Song singing.

Stage deportment and dramatic action.

Stringed-instrument playing (violin, viola, violoncello, double bass, and harp).

Theory: Harmony, counterpoint, and composition.

Vocal culture.

Wind-instrument playing (clarinet, oboe, horn, trumpet, flute, etc.).

#### COURSES OF STUDY.

All regular students will be required to follow a prescribed course of study designed to impart a broad and liberal knowledge of the art. It is not the wish that instruction shall be given only to persons who intend to follow music as a vocation. A thorough musical education is offered to all who desire seriously to learn the art, be their purposes what they may. There are regular and special courses in each branch of study, For the former, no formal entrance examination is required. Applicants are examined. but solely with a view to assigning them to the course of study for which they seem best fitted. Nevertheless, should students, in the regular courses, through want of capacity or industry, fail to disclose satisfactory results, they will not be allowed to continue their studies. In order to be admitted to the special or artists' courses, applicants must satisfy the director as to the degree of proficiency already attained, and if deemed necessary by him must pass an examination. The institute also provides a course of study for persons who do not play upon an instrument of music, sing, or compose, but who are lovers of music and wish to enhance their enjoyment of it by learning to listen to it discriminatingly, with understanding and appreciation of its beauties. Such listening is also an art capable of cultivation.

The duration of the courses of study varies according to their nature and the rate of progress made by the student. Instruction is individual, but there is also class work, so that each student has the benefit of the instructor's criticisms of his fellows.

The amount of time which a student of any of the principal courses is expected to spend at the school differs according to the nature of the course and the grade of the student. As a rule, he will attend two whole forenoons or afternoons per week, with now and then an additional hour for special lectures, etc. This time would include two half-hour individual lessons in the principal subject. In addition to this, there would be at least one hour of harmony or counterpoint, one hour of ear training and dictation, one hour of sight and choral singing, and one or two hours for lectures.

Attendance at recitals, rehearsals, etc., would probably add an hour or two per week to those enumerated above.

Additional lectures instituted from time to time will be open to all regular students without extra charge. It is the policy of this school to open as many avenues of information as possible to all its students.

#### EXAMINATIONS AND DISTINCTIONS.

Examinations will be held at stated intervals, and students will be rated according to their ability and the progress they have made. To all students who pass satisfactorily the final examinations in the prescribed, or, as they have been termed herein, "regular," courses of instruction, diplomas will be issued. Students completing any one of the special courses will receive a certificate. Teachers' certificates will be bestowed upon all students who shall successfully pass through any one of the teachers' training courses. Holders of diplomas will form the alumni and alumnæ of the institute; holders of certificates will be termed associates.

The courses have been outlined as follows:

#### SINGING

## REGULAR COURSE. THREE YEARS.

Vocal culture—tone placing, vocalises, interpretation.

Ear training—sight singing, music dictation, choral practice.

Elements of music—notation, intervals, rhythm, etc.

Theory of music-melody writing, harmony, form, analysis, counterpoint.

Piano playing-for general musicianship.

Languages-Italian, German, French.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

## ARTISTS' COURSE FOR CONCERT AND ORATORIO.

(Post-graduate.)

Songs-Italian, German, and French.

Recitative and aria.

Study of the standard oratorios.

Advanced theory.

Languages-Italian, German, and French.

Declamation and stage deportment.

Ensemble singing, with other solo voices, chorus, and orchestra.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

## ARTISTS' COURSE FOR OPERA.

## (Post-graduate.)

Study of the standard operas, old and new.

Advanced theory.

Languagee-Italian, German, and French.

Declamation.

Stage deportment and dramatic action.

Chorus and ensemble practice.

## SPECIAL TRAINING COURSE FOR TEACHERS.

(Post-graduate.)

Vocal culture.

Ear training—sight singing, music dictation, choral practice.

Advanced theory.

Languages-Italian, German, and French.

Pedagogy.

Anatomy of the vocal organs.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

#### PIANOPORTE.

## REGULAR COURSE. THREE YEARS.

The piano-technic, touch, phrasing, interpretation, etc. Ear training—sight singing, music dictation, choral practice. Elements of music-notation, intervals, rhythm, etc. Theory of music-melody writing, harmony, form, analysis, counterpoint. Sight playing—ensemble practice with two pianos and with strings. Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

#### ARTISTS' COURSE.

#### (Post-graduate.)

The piano—technic, touch, phrasing, advanced interpretation. Advanced theory. Ensemble playing in chamber music and with orchestra. Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

### SPECIAL TRAINING COURSE FOR TEACHERS.

#### (Postaraduate.)

The piano—technic; touch, phrasing, interpretation, etc. Ensemble playing. Advanced theory. History of the pianoforte and its music. Pedagogy. Practical experience in preparatory teaching. Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

### ORGAN.

## REGULAR COURSE, THREE YEARS.

The organ—technic, touch, phrasing, interpretation, registration. Ear training—sight singing, music dictation, choral practice. Elements of music—notation, intervals, rhythm, etc. Theory of music—melody writing, harmony, form, analysis, counterpoint. Organ structure.

Organ accompaniment.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

## STRINGED INSTRUMENTS: VIOLIN, VIOLA, VIOLONCELLO, HARP.

## REGULAR COURSES, THREE YEARS.

The instrument—its technic, phrasing, interpretation, etc. Ear training—sight singing, music dictation, choral practice. Elements of music—notation, intervals, rhythm. Theory of music—melody writing, harmony, form, analysis, counterpoint. Piano playing—for general musicianship. Ensemble playing.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

#### ARTISTS' COURSES.

## (Postgraduate.)

The instrument—advanced technic and interpretation. Advanced theory. History of the instrument and of its music. . Study of chamber music.

Ensemble playing with orchestra.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

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#### SPECIAL TRAINING COURSES FOR TEACHERS.

#### (Postgraduate.)

The instrument—its technic from the normal standpoint.

Practical experience in preparatory teaching.

Advanced theory.

Pedagogy.

History of the instrument and of its music.

Study of chamber music and ensemble playing.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

## ORCHESTRA COURSES.

Courses for all orchestra instruments and under teachers representative of the best French, Belgian, German, and Italian schools have been established. They include the following instruments:

Double bass.

Horn. Oboe.

Bassoon. Clarinet. Flute.

Trombone.
Trumpet.

All percussion instruments.

Other wind instruments.

In each case the prescribed course covers, in addition to the principal subject:

Ear training—sight singing, music dictation, etc.

Elements of music-notation, intervals, rhythm.

Theory of music-melody writing, harmony, counterpoint, form, analysis.

Ensemble playing—orchestra practice.

Attendance on lectures, recitals, rehearsals, and concerts.

## POSTGRADUATE COURSE IN THEORY.

Music form.

Double counterpoint.

Music analysis.

Fugue.

Applied counterpoint.

Instrumentation.

Practical composition in all forms.

Score reading, vocal score in the old clefs, orchestra score.

#### PREPARATORY CLASSES.

Under the supervision of the principal teachers, students in the special-training courses for teachers (piano or strings) will give lessons, designed to familiarize them with the practical work of teaching elementary pupils who are not yet members of the regular or special courses. The preparatory courses are open to persons of all ages and both sexes, and will prepare them for admission to the regular courses.

## LECTURE COURSE.

Subscribers to the lecture course have the right to attend all the lectures and recitals given at the institute.

Following are the subjects for the current year:

The Beethoven symphonies.

The development of vocal art.

How to listen to music.

The history of music.

Music as a culture study, its individual and community value.

This lecture course is specially designed for persons who wish to increase their capacity for musical enjoyment without making a practical study of the art. The

lectures are illustrated by the performance of music of the highest and most representative kind. It is not enough to read about music, or hear about it, or even to hear it in a purposeless way. It must be heard intelligently to be fully appreciated; and it is the purpose of this course to teach students to listen intelligently.

This curriculum, offered by a school of music well able to carry out its provisions, is a careful attempt to properly coordinate the various subjects germane to the complete music education of teacher, performer, or composer.

## CURRICULUM NO. 2.

The following courses are from the catalogue of a conservatory which is a type of many scattered throughout various sections of the United States. Its support is derived solely from its tuition fees. With a still larger number of conservatories whose resources are smaller it represents the predominating class of independent music schools.

#### PURPOSE OF INSTRUCTION.

It will be the constant endeavor of our instructors in music and drama not only to ground pupils thoroughly in the theory of their art but to give them a finish in execution. Whether students take up their work purely from a motive of self-culture or for a professional career, the method of instruction should be the same. The demand to-day is for practical results, and we need public criticism to ascertain our true merit. For this reason our pupils will be called upon often to appear before audiences.

# COURSES OF STUDY.

The conservatory offers systematic courses of instruction in piano, voice culture, organ, violin, violoncello, and orchestral instruments, in orchestral and ensemble playing; all theoretical branches; art of conducting and history of music, and in the art and science of teaching. They comprise five distinct departments of study, as follows:

- 1. Introductory course or general musical instruction.
- Advanced course.
- 3. Teachers' course.
- 4. Diploma course.
- 5. Postgraduate course.

## INTRODUCTORY COURSE.

This course is open to any student wishing to pursue musical study without reference to graduation, or to prepare for either of the more advanced courses offered. No previous knowledge of music is required. This course includes the elementary classes in which children from seven years upward are taught the principles of music in such a manner as to stimulate true musical appreciation and to lay the foundation for the more advanced work in vocal and instrumental music.

## ADVANCED COURSE.

This course is especially offered to advanced students. Applicants must have had musical training and evince sufficient ability to insure progress in their work.

## TEACHERS' COURSE.

The preparation of teachers being so important to every successful school, a special course of study calculated to give a thorough training in methods of teaching has been



introduced. A special teachers' certificate will be given to those students who have satisfied the following conditions:

Candidates for graduation are required to have sufficient mastery of some instrument or the art of singing to give a private recital; have pursued studies in the art of teaching, and had practical experience in teaching under the supervision of their teacher for at least one year. The theoretical requirements for this course are the same as in the diploma course.

#### DIPLOMA COURSE.

The diploma course is open to any person who is qualified to pursue more advanced studies. It furnishes thorough training for entrance into professional life, although it is not restricted to students having such an end in view. No prescribed order of study is laid down, as the varied needs of the students demand an elasticity in the course which precludes the possibility of an adequate statement of required work. The student has to pass an examination so arranged as to demonstrate artistic skill in performance and an accurate and thorough knowledge of the theoretical, historical, and critical aspects of music as an art. Candidates must give a creditable and adequate public performance of a programme as required by the mentioned models, also satisfactorily prepare without aid a composition given fifteen days in advance, read at sight a composition of medium difficulty, and pass successfully the required examination in theory and history of music.

The diploma course may be pursued still further, and for such advanced work a special postgraduate certificate will be issued.

#### POSTGRADUATE COURSE.

The postgraduate department has for its object the more complete development of those who desire to prepare themselves for positions of large responsibility in the higher walks of the musical profession.

Candidates for admission to the postgraduate course must previously have completed the regular course in the conservatory, and have received its diploma.

## VOICE CULTURE.

Tone work-physiology, breath control, voice placing.

Enunciation—attack, release, vibration, legato. (Vowels, diphthongs, and consonants.)

Sight singing-staff notation, rhythm, ear training, harmony.

Repertoire-interpretation and classification.

## SONG, ORATORIO AND OPERA COACHING.

Pupils desiring to acquire the true rendition in oratorio solo singing, as exemplified in the interpretation of the great singers and conductors, can secure the necessary knowledge and thus equip themselves for public performances.

## ENSEMBLE CLASSES.

Students who have acquired fluency and experience in piano, violin, or violoncello playing are most earnestly advised to enter one of the ensemble classes, thus gaining experience in ensemble playing and accompaniments and acquiring a knowledge of the best chamber music and other instrumental compositions.

### SIGHT-READING AND SIGHT-SINGING CLASSES.

These classes afford to pupils an excellent practice in reading at sight, develop the sense of rhythm, give experience in ensemble work, and familiarize the student with the compositions of the great masters.

#### EXAMINATION FOR DIPLOMAS.

Graduating diplomas are awarded to students who have studied at the conservatory and who successfully pass the examination which the graduating rules of the conservatory demand.

The following examinations will be required:

Piano.—Performance of a composition given fifteen days in advance and prepared by candidate without assistance.

Reading at sight.

Elementary theory.

Advanced theory (at least one year's study).

History of music.

Acceptable performance of five complete compositions from the works of standard composers, including a concerto.

Voice.—Rendition of a composition given eight days in advance and prepared by candidate without assistance.

Rendition at first sight of a composition (words and music).

Rendition from memory of one or more selections from a repertory of six belonging to the oratorio, opera, or song literature.

Elementary theory.

Advanced theory (at least one year's study).

History of music.

Fair piano technique.

Violin and other orchestral instruments.—Performance of a composition given fifteen days in advance and prepared by candidate without assistance.

Performance of a composition at sight.

Elementary theory.

Advanced theory (at least one year's study).

History of music.

Performance of a composition from a repertory of six.

Organ.—Performance of a composition given fifteen days in advance and prepared by candidate without assistance.

Elementary theory.

Advanced theory (at least one year's study).

History of music.

The candidate must give an acceptable performance from a repertory of six compositions.

## MODEL FOR GRADUATION.

### PIANOFORTE.

Bach-prelude and fugue.

Moscheles—concerto in G minor.

Beethoven-sonata Op. 26.

Chopin-nocturne in F sharp, fantasie impromptu.

Brahms-ballade in D, intermezzo.

Weber-Tausig-invitation to the dance.

## VOICE.

Arias from oratorios and operas.

Group of songs from best German composers.

Group of songs from best Italian and French composers.

Group of songs from best English and American composers.

Candidates are required to be able to accompany songs of medium difficulty.

Violin and organ models to be decided by the directors of the respective departments.

#### LECTURES ON HISTORY OF MUSIC.

Our free list further includes a course on history of music. This course comprises a series of lectures in which a full analysis of music in its development from ancient times to the present day will be given. The lectures are both instructive and interesting. The following course is scheduled for this year:

- 1. The Chinese, Japanese, Hindoos, and Egyptians.
- 2. The Hebrews, Assyrians, Arabs, Greeks, and Romans.
- 3. Early Christian church music. Efforts at notation and part singing. Popular music in the middle ages: The troubadours, minstrels, minnesinger, meistersinger.
- 4. Development of polyphony. The old French and Netherland schools. Luther and the German chorale.
- 5. The classic era of Italy. The different schools. Beginning of oratorio and opera. Instrumental music and instruments.
- 6. The old French opera. Germany under Italian influence. Bach, the first of the German classicists.
  - 7. The era of the classic composers in Germany. The development of the pianoforte.
  - 8. The Romantic school.
  - 9. French and Italian opera during the last two centuries. Wagner in Germany.
- 10. The more modern composers, singers and virtuosi. American music. The status at present.

The curricula Nos. 3 and 4 are offered by universities of high rank, the first giving instruction in theoretical subjects only, the second having a completely equipped school of music and giving instruction in both theoretical and practical music. The first grants credit in music both at entrance and toward a degree; the second, toward a degree only.

#### CURRICULUM NO. 8.

# ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS (HARMONY).

The examination will be adapted to the proficiency of those who have studied harmony in a systematic course of three lessons a week through one school year. In this study some training in pianoforte playing, and the ability to read chorals and moderately easy piano pieces at sight are necessary. This course is equivalent to music 1. The work will consist chiefly of exercises written on figured bases in which all the triads and seventh-chords are to be employed progressively. Exercises must be written in a clear and well-formed notation.

### COURSES IN MUSIC.

The aim of the courses is twofold:

1. To provide a thorough training for students who intend to follow the musical profession as teachers and composers.

To offer a course of technical study to those who wish to devote themselves chiefly to musical criticism and literature, and for the cultivation of musical taste.

Course 1 is the necessary introduction to all the other courses, except music 3. Proficiency in playing the pianoforte is of great advantage to the student in all the courses, and in 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7 is required. Advanced players on the violin, violoncello, and other orchestral instruments, and vocalists, may take music 1, provided they are able to play chord exercises on the piano.

Courses 1, 2, 5, and 6 must follow each other in regular order.

Course 3 requires practical knowledge of vocal or instrumental music.



Courses 2, 2a, 2b, and 4 require knowledge of harmony.

Courses 5 and 7 require knowledge of harmony and counterpoint.

Students who intend to take only one course in music, for the cultivation of musical taste and general knowledge, are recommended to elect music 3, as best adapted to this end.

Students who intend to specialize in music, by taking several courses, or to try for honors in music, are required to elect music 1 in their first year in college. Students for honors must take the courses in the following order:

Freshman year, music 1.

Sophomore year, music 2 and 4.

Junior year, music 2a or 2b and 5.

Senior year, music 6 and 7.

Music 3 must be taken either in the sophomore, junior, or senior year.

Students for honors in music who enter college in the sophomore year must take the courses in the following order:

Sophomore year, music 1 and 3.

Junior year, music 2, 2a or 2b, and 4.

Senior year, music 5, 6, and 7.

Students who wish to try for honors in music must consult with their instructor in harmony and the head of the department before the end of the first year.

#### DESCRIPTION OF COURSES.

## 1. Harmony.

The fundamental principles of the theory of music are embodied in the study of harmony, which treats of the different chords in their natural relations and combinations. The subdivisions of the subject are as follows: Intervals, or the measurement of the difference in pitch between one tone and another; triads, seventh, and ninth chords with their inversions and resolutions; chromatically altered chords; augmented chords; cadences; suspensions; passing and changing notes; organ point; modulation.

The work consists of written exercises on basses (both figured and unfigured) and the harmonization of given melodies in three and four voices. These are corrected by the instructor out of the class room and subsequently discussed with the students individually. Many exercises are also worked out on the blackboard by the sudents.

Modern Harmony, by Foote and Spalding, is used as the basis of the instruction. The treatises of Prout, of Chadwick, and of others are used as reference books, and supplementary illustrations and explanations are given in the class room. The course is open and specially recommended to freshmen.

## 2. Counterpoint.

Counterpoint applies the principles of harmony to the melodious treatment of the several voice parts in combination. The study of this subject naturally follows that of harmony and develops the contrapuntal facility necessary to all forms of composition.

The work will include the free harmonization of chorals and melodies, the various orders of counterpoint, the contrapuntal treatment of cantus firmus in different voices, and simple forms of free composition.

Spalding's Counterpoint will be used as a text-book.

[2a hf. Vocal counterpoint, with analysis of choral works of the great composers. (Half course.)]

This course is supplementary to music 2. Exercises and analyses and short vocal compositions.

Particular attention will be given to the composition of original pieces in the various styles, i. e., for men's voices, for women's voices, for mixed chorus, and also for solo voice with accompaniment.

[\*2b hf. Medieval or modal harmony and its application. (Half-course.)]

The object of this course is to give a clear understanding of modal harmonization as applied to the accompaniment of plain song, and to prepare the student for the intelligent study of the contrapuntal master works of Palestrina and other early composers.

The course is open to students who have a good knowledge of harmony and counterpoint, but can be taken only with the consent of the instructor.

Text-book, Niedermeyer's Gregorian Accompaniment.

Reference books, Dickinson's Music in the History of the Western Church; Haberl's Magister Choralis, etc.

 History of music from the time of Palestrina to the present day. Lectures, reading, and reports.

This is a literary course, which does not require special technical skill; it is open to all students who have practical knowledge of vocal or instrumental music.

Instruction is given in the form of lectures. The growth of music from ancient to modern times is traced in outline, including the history of early church music, the origin and development of the modern scales and counterpoint, and the choral music of the early Flemish and Italian masters. The history of the opera, cantata, and oratorio is studied in detail.

Special attention will be given to the compositions of the great masters of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and also to the tendencies in the development of music at the present day.

Vocal and instrumental works are performed in the class room. An seolian orchestrelle is also used to illustrate the work of the great composers.

The following text-books are recommended: Dickinson, The Study of the History of Music; Riemann's Musical History (Augener & Co., London); Ambros, Geschichte der Musik, 4 volumes (Leipsic); Von Dommer, Musik-Geschichte (Hamburg); Fetis, Histoire de la Musique, 4 volumes; Langhans, History of Music (Schirmer, New York); Naumann, History of Music, 2 volumes (London); Bonavia Hunt's History of Music; Rockstro, History of Music (Scribner & Welford, New York); Ritter's Student's History of Music (Ditson Company); Grove's Dictionary of Music (Macmillan & Co.); Famous Composers and their Works (J. D. Millet Company, Boston); Life of Mozart, Jahn, 2 volumes (Novello, London); Life of Bach, Spitta, 3 volumes (Novello, London); Finck, Life of Wagner (Scribner, New York); lives of Handel, Haydn, Beethoven, Schubert, Schumann, Wagner, and other great composers (Macmillan series).

4. Musical form, with analysis of the works of the great composers, and collateral reading.

This course requires knowledge of harmony.

A knowledge of musical form (or thematic construction) is essential to the thorough understanding and appreciation of the works of the great composers, as embodied in their symphonies, overtures, chamber music, sonatas, etc.

A selection of the most important instrumental works of Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert, Schumann, Mendelssohn, Chopin, Liszt, Brahms, Tschaikowski, and other modern masters will be analyzed by the students and played on the pianoforte in the class room by the instructor and others. An æolian is used in the performance of symphonic works.

The following text-book is used: Prout's Musical Form.

Collateral reading is required in these works: Evolution of the Art of Music, Parry; The Sonata Form, Hadow; The Pianoforte Sonata, Shedlock; Beethoven and His Nine Symphonies, Grove.

5. Canon and fugue.

Canon and fugue are the most advanced forms of polyphonic composition, and require a thorough knowledge of harmony and counterpoint.

The object of this course is to perfect the contrapuntal technique of the student, and to prepare him for the study of the larger and freer forms of composition.

The work will be based largely upon the fugal works of Bach and will consist of practice in writing canons of all varieties, and in the analysis and composition of fugues.

There will also be practice in the simpler forms of free music for voices and for various instruments.

Jadassohn's Canon and Fugue (Breitkopf) and Prout's Canon and Fugue are recommended as text-books.

### 6. Instrumentation.

This course requires knowledge of harmony and counterpoint.

The work of this course consists of: 1. Lectures on the characteristics and tone quality of the various orchestral instruments. 2. Analyses and descriptions of the most important (vocal and orchestral) works of Handel, Bach, Haydn, Gluck, Mozart, Beethoven, Schubert, Schumann, Mendelssohn, Von Weber, Berlioz, Liszt, Wagner, Brahms, and other modern composers. 3. Exercises in orchestration, with various combinations of instruments, strings, wind, and brass. For this purpose chorals, national airs, and short selections from the works of various masters will be used.

The services of professional musicians will be employed in the class room to exhibit the tone quality, compass, and technical peculiarities of the string and wind instruments of the modern orchestra. Original compositions scored by members of the course will be played in rehearsal by the orchestra of the New England Conservatory, so that students may hear the effects of their orchestration.

The following text-books are used: Prout's The Orchestra, 2 volumes; Berlioz's Instrumentation (Ditson Company). The following authors will also be referred to: Gevaert, Instrumentation and Orchestration (Paris); Marx, Kompositions-Lehre, Volume IV (Leipsic); Lobe, Lehrbuch der Musikalischen Komposition, Volume II (Leipsic); Jadassohn's Instrumentation.

## 7. Free composition.

This course is intended primarily for those students who are specializing in music, and can only be taken with the consent of the instructor.

It will consist of the analysis and composition of chamber and orchestral music. As some knowledge of orchestration is required, it must be preceded by, or taken in conjunction with, music 6. Arrangements have been made whereby successful compositions may be performed.

#### AUXILIARY SUBJECTS.

Students of music are strongly advised to strengthen their work in music by pursuing some of the courses in German, French, and Italian—on account of the important musical literature in these languages—in the history of the fine arts, and in acoustics.

#### DEGREES: THE DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF ARTS WITH DISTINCTION.

The degree of bachelor of arts with distinction will be awarded in two grades, cum laude and magna cum laude. The requirements in music will be as follows:

- 1. Eight approved courses, five of which shall be in music (including music 1, 2, 5, and 6), and three in modern languages—German, French, or Italian. Those who show that they have acquired outside the college course a thorough knowledge of harmony will not be required to take music 1. The same rule applies to music 2. Students who intend to become candidates should confer with their instructor at the opening of the sophomore year.
- 2. One or more special original compositions in large form must be presented to the committee before May 10 of the senior year.

#### HONORS

Honors of two grades—honors and highest honors—are given at graduation for great proficiency in a department. Honors in music are given on the following terms:

- 1. The cand date must have taken all the courses and have passed all the examinations with distinction.
  - 2. He must present original compositions in strict and free form.

The ability to read French and German is required of candidates for honors in music.

#### CURRICULUM NO. 4.

There are two general courses in the school of music, viz, (1) the collegiate course and (2) the academic course.

- I. The collegiate course.—In this course the requirements for admission are the same as for the general courses in the college of letters and science, or for adult special students, together with such proficiency in some department of music as is stated in connection with the outlined courses of study. A graduate's diploma will be granted on the completion of this course. Four years of study are required, including the courses in musical theory, harmony (one year), and history of music, or their equivalents.
- II. The academic course.—This course is open to persons not members of the university, and also to university students who do not desire to enter the collegiate course pursuant to graduation. Students of this course may, however, be admitted to the musical classes of the university, but will not be considered candidates for graduation or for a diploma. If, however, at any time, such students should be transferred to the collegiate course, they will, on satisfying other conditions, receive credit for studies previously taken. A certificate of excellence will be granted to worthy students of this course on examination, after not less than three years of study.

## I. COLLEGIATE COURSE.

### PIANO.

The courses in piano and singing have been arranged to cover a period of four years.

Applicants for admission will be expected to play music of the grade of Mozart's Sonata in D major No. 3, Peters edition; Loeschhorn, Op. 52 and Op. 66; Bach, Little Preludes.

First year.—Heller, Op. 46 and 45; Czerny, Studies in Velocity; Jensen, Op. 32; Bach, Inventions and English Suites.

Second year.—Bach, Well-Tempered Clavichord; Kullak, Octave School, Books I and II; Cramer, Studies; Czerny, Fingerfertigkeit; Marmontel, Mécanisme.

Third year.—Tausig, Studies; Kullak, Book III; Gradus ad Parnassum, first half; Czerny, Toccato; Chopin, Preludes.

Fourth year.—Moscheles, Op. 70; Gradus ad Parnassum, second half; Chopin, Etudes.

It is not supposed that a rigid course can be given which will meet the requirements of individual students, but the foregoing outline represents, in a general way, the character of each year's work. Etudes especially are named, because they indicate grade and character of requirements more clearly than can be done otherwise. On the other hand, these studies are supplemented by ample selections from classic and modern authors for use in the parlor or concert room.

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Upon graduation students will be expected to play acceptably from memory selections of the grade of Chromatic Fantasie and Fugue by Bach, Sonata Op. 90 by Beethoven, Concerto in G minor (one movement) by Mendelssohn, La Fileuse by Raff, and Second Rhapsody by Liszt.

#### OBGAN.

No previous knowledge of organ playing is required. The student must be well grounded in piano playing, be possessed of a correct technique, and be able to read plain four-part music.

The course of study is continuous, beginning with Stainer's Organ School or Whiting's First Six Months on the Organ, and following with the larger works of Rink and Best, supplemented by special studies by Thayer, Buck, Ritter, Schneider, Volckmar, and others. Selections from Bach's organ works, Mendelssohn's sonatas, and the compositions of modern composers are used.

Careful training is given in playing church music and voluntaries, the use of stops, and the mechanism of the instrument.

#### VOICE.

The student must be able to read plain music and must have had an amount of training equal to the first half of Concone's Fifty Lessons, and comprising the usual technical study for the same period.

First year.—Tone placing, breathing, and phrasing; ballad singing and the sostenuto style; technical and other studies of the grade of Bonoldi's Six Vocalises, Sieber's Vocalises; Marchesi's Exercises, Op. 21, Book I.

Second year.—Concone's Fifteen Vocalises; Schubert's Manual of Vocal Technique; Marchesi's Vocalises, Op. 21, Book II; German and French songs, and easy oratorio and operatic arias, and recitatives.

Third year.—Schubert's Special Studies; Bordogni's Bravura Studies, and operatic and oratorio selections.

Fourth year.—Studies in bravura by Lamperti and Bordogni; cadenzas and larger forms of execution.

On graduation the student will be expected to sing acceptably selections (according to voice and school) from such songs and arias as He Was Despised, Angels Ever Bright and Fair, I Know That My Redeemer Liveth, and Thou Shalt Break Them, by Handel; With Verdure Clad, Rolling in Foaming Billows, and In Native Worth, by Haydn; If With All Your Hearts, It is Enough, and O Rest in the Lord, by Mendelssohn; Infelice, by Verdi; Roberto, tu che Adoro, by Meyerbeer; Una Voce and Pro Peccatis, by Rossini.

#### VIOLIN.

First year.—Hermann, Scale Studies; Kayser, Violin Instructor, I and II; Herbert Ries, Violin School, Part I; easy melodious solos.

Second year.—Kayser, Violin Instructor, III; Kayser, Etudes, Op. 29; Schubert, Violin School, IV; Herbert Ries, Violin School, Part III; solos by Viotti, Rode, De Beriot.

Third year.—Schradieck, Violin Technic; De Beriot, School, Part II; Etudes by Dont, Kreutzer, and Schubert.

Solos by De Beriot, Leonard, Vieuxtemps, and Wieniawski.

## THEORETICAL STUDIES.

## MUSICAL THEORY AND CHORAL PRACTICE.

A one-year course, twice a week, in the general theory of music, including notation, scale construction, intervals, distinctions of rhythm, etc., combined with a practical study of sight reading and choral singing.

This course is especially recommended to all students, whether of instrumental or vocal music, as furnishing a substantial foundation for all other work; it will also be found useful for those who contemplate teaching in public or similar schools.

#### HARMONY AND COUNTERPOINT.

The student must be able to read and play simple four-part music.

First year.—Review of scales, and intervals, triads, seventh chords, augmented sixth chords, modulation, synopsis of suspension and appropriatura.

Second year.—Detailed treatment of modulation, suspension, appoggiatura, etc.; harmonizing melodies; simple strict counterpoint.

Third year.—Double counterpoint, canon, and fugue.

## HISTORY OF MUSIC.

A course of lectures twice a week, extending through the year. In the first semester the lectures give a general survey of music before the Christian era and down to the eighteenth century.

The second semester is devoted to the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries.

#### MUSICAL COMPOSITION.

A year course, twice a week. One year of harmony is required as preparation.

# II. ACADEMIC COURSE.

There are no requirements for entrance. Students are received and graded according to ability and amount of previous study. This course in all departments leads up to and overlaps the collegiate course. Students after reaching the proper stage of preparation may be transferred to the collegiate course, or may remain in the academic course, the work of the last three years being identical in both courses. But no certificate of excellence will be issued to any student who is not thoroughly fitted to enter the third year of the collegiate course.

## CURRICULUM NO. 5.

Curriculum No. 5 is offered by a college for young women which maintains a well-equipped school of music in connection with its collegiate department. Credit is given in music toward the A. B. degree for work in practical music. Students are advanced from one course to the next higher only after examination before the full music faculty. It will be noted that in the course leading to the degree of associate in music subjects in the collegiate department are correlated with the music courses. These subjects must be passed by examination in the collegiate department.

# ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

For unconditioned admission to the freshman class in the course leading to the degree of associate in music (A. Mus.) the applicant must offer the entrance requirements in music, and seven units of preparatory work, as follows: English (3), mathematics (3), and history (1).

For conditioned admission to the freshman class in the courses leading to the associate in music degree, students must offer five units in the literary subjects outlined above. Every condition, however, must be removed by the end of the junior year.

a The courses in counterpoint, etc., and in musical composition are inserted here under their proper headings, because they are frequently taken as electives, but they represent graduate work for the students of the school of music.



Entrance requirements in music apply only to those registering for the degree of associate in music. The preparatory course in piano, voice, violin, and organ, needed in order to enter the freshman class in the associate in music course, is described in course 1, and this preparation can be given at the college to such students as have not had it before coming.

### CURRICULUM FOR THE DEGREE OF ASSOCIATE IN MUSIC.

Freshman year. Hours,	SOPHONORE YEAR. HOURS.
Mathematics	English
English	Physics. 3
Piano or organ or violin or voice 6	Piano or organ or violin or voice
Theory	Theory 1
Harmony 1	Harmony 1
Ear training	Ear training 1
Total	Total
JUNIOR YRAR.	SENIOR YEAR.
French or German 3	French or German
Piano or organ or violin or voice	Piano or organ or violin or voice
History of music	Counterpoint
Theory 1	History of music 1
Harmony 1	Ensemble
Theme	Theme
Total	Total

#### COURSES OF STUDY.

Courses are offered in pianoforte, violin, organ, and voice, leading to the degree of associate in music (A. Mus.) and a purely theoretical course is offered to candidates for the degree of bachelor of music.

Candidates for the degree of associate in music must take-

- (a) Courses 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7 in theory,
- (b) Courses in academic department, and
- (c) One of the following: Courses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 in pianoforte, or violin; 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 in solo singing; 1, 2, 3 in organ.

Candidates for the bachelor of arts degree may be given credit for six hours of music provided they complete courses 1 and 2 in theory and one of the following in practical music: Courses 1, 2, 3 in pianoforte; 1, 2, 3 in solo singing; 1, 2, 3 in violin; or 1, 2 in organ.

## PIANOFORTE.

Course 1.a—Technical studies: Easy Etudes, Faelten and Porter. Kinder Übungen, Book 1, Kohler. Czerny, Op. 599, Books 1 and 2, Kohler, Op. 190. Kohler, 157.
Czerny, Op. 139. Duvernoy, Op. 176. Burgmuller, Op. 100. Loeschhorn, Op. 65, Books 1, 2, and 3. Loeschhorn, Op. 38, Book 1. Kohler, Op. 50. Le Couppey, Op. 26. Bertini, Op. 100. Sonatinas by Clementi, Diabelli, Merkel, Lichner, Handrock, Kuhlau. Pieces at discretion of teacher.

Course 2.—Technical studies: Kohler, Op. 242. Czerny, Op. 299, Books 1 and 2. Czerny, Op. 279. Berens, Op. 61, Books 1 and 2. Heller, Op. 46 and 47. Krause, Op. 2 and 6. Octave studies by Vogt, Wilson G. Smith, Czerny, and Turner. Bach's Little Preludes and Fugues. Sonatinas, Easy Sonatas and Variations of Haydn, Beethoven, and others. Schumann Album, Op. 68. Lyrical pieces, Op. 12, Grieg. Selections from Reinecke, Gade, and others. Mendelssohn's Songs without Words.

a This course is preparatory to entrance into the course for the associate in music degree.

- Course 3.—Technical studies: Czerny, Op. 299, Books 3 and 4. Berens, Op. 61, Books 3 and 4. Heller, Op. 45 and 46. Duvernoy, Op. 120. Octave studies continued. Bach Inventions (2 parts). Haberbier, Op. 53. Lebert and Stark, Part II. Sonatas by Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, and others. Mendelssohn's Songs Without Words. Field's Nocturnes. Selections from other composers.
- Course 4.—Technical studies: Cramer, Lebert, and Stark, Part III. Czerny, Op. 740 and 40 Daily Studies. Gradus ad Parnassum. Kullak Octave Studies. Bach Inventions (three-part). Sonatas. Selections from Chopin, Mendelssohn, Grieg, Raff, and others.
- Course 5.—Continuation of studies of course 4. Moscheles, Op. 70. Mendelssohn, Preludes and Studies. Bach, 48 Preludes and Fugues. Kessler Studies. Chopin, Etudes. Sonatas and selections from different composers.
- Course 6.—Interpretation: This course is devoted to the perfecting of work done in previous courses and the preparation of a public recital which is required for graduation.

A postgraduate course is also offered, in which the higher and more difficult works of the great masters are studied.

#### SOLO SINGING

- Course 1.—Rules for Breathing and their Practical Application; Formation of Tone; Tecla Vigna Studies; Exercises by Concone, Book I and II, Op. 9 and 10; Sieber, Op. 92-97; Simple English Songs.
- Course 2.—Tecla Vigna Studies; Slow Trill Portamento, etc.; Exercises, Concone, Book III and IV; Panofka Book I, II; Lutgen Daily Exercise; Songs of Medium Difficulty from English and German composers.
- Course 3.—Difficult exercises in vocalization, musical embellishments; exercises, Panofka, Book III, IV; Nava, Aprile, Vaccai; song studies from the English, German, Italian, and French schools.
- Course 4.—Finishing studies by Paer, Marchesi, Righini; studies of oratorio and standard opera.
- Course 5.—Interpretation: This course is devoted to the acquirement of repertoire and the preparation of a public recital which is required before graduation.

All pupils who are prepared to do so are required to attend regularly the choral society rehearsals and to take part in occasional public performances.

#### VIOLIN.

- Course 1.—Elementary exercises. Scales in first position. Bowing exercises.

  Studies: Ch. de Bériot, Violin School, Part I. Tours Elementary Violin School. Kayser, Op. 20, Book I. Sevcik, Method for Beginners, Op. 6.
- Course 2.—Finger and bowing exercises. Scales. Kayser, Op. 20, Books II and III. Dont, Op. 37, Wohlfahrt. Hans Sitt, one hundred studies, Book I. Solos: Dancla, Airs Variés. Duets by Dancla, Mazas, etc.
- Course 3.—Bowing exercises. Scales. Studies: Dont, Mazas, Casorti, Sevcik, Sitt. Solos: Alard, Dancla, de Beriot. Duets: Dancla, Pleyel.
- Course 4.—Scales (three octaves). Arpeggios. Thirds. Sevcik, Violin School. Kreutzer Etudes. Fiorillo Etudes. Solos: de Beriot, Airs Variés. Concertos by Viotti, Rode. Sonatas by Handel, Mozart, and Haydn.
- Course 5.—Scales (three octaves, in thirds and octaves) Arpeggios. Sevcik Violin School. Fiorillo Etudes. Rode Caprices. Solos: Svendsen, Wieniawski, Beethoven, Alard, Ries, etc. Concertos: Rode, de Beriot, Mozart, Kreutzer. Sonatas: Tartini, Mozart, Nardini, etc.
- Course 6.—Scales in thirds, octaves and tenths. Arpeggios in the higher positions. Rode Caprices continued. Kreutzer Etudes continued. Campagnoli, seven divertissements. Solos: Wieniawski, Saint-Saens, Lalo, Vieuxtemps, Sarasate, Hubay, Brahms, and others. Concertos: de Beriot, Bach, Spohr, Bruch, Mendelssohn. Sonatas: Bach, Beethoven, etc.

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#### ORGAN.

Thorough and systematic courses are given, no student being allowed to graduate until she is a thoroughly competent organist. The history and construction of the organ is taught.

For entrance to the associate in music courses in the organ department, students must have completed courses 1, 2, 3 in pianoforte, passing the examination therein.

The following courses outline the work required for graduates and include the Italian, French, German, English, and American schools of composition:

Course 1.—Schneider Pedal Studies, Bach, First Preludes and Fugues (Book VIII of Peters Edition), Mendelssohn Sonatas, Easier Concert and Church Compositions by Cappocci, Mailly, Gounod, Guilmant, Du Bois, Faure, Lemaigre, Salome, Merkel, Rheinberger, Kroeger, Foote, Hammerel, Fink, Carl, and Smith.

Course 2.—Bach, Concert Preludes and Fugues, Guilmant and Widor Sonatas, Rheinberger Sonatas, and the more advanced works of the composers named in Course 1.

Course 3.—Advanced technical work and the preparation of concert repertoire.

In addition to the courses outlined above, special attention is given to accompanying, hymn playing, and the performance of all forms of church and concert music. A public recital is required before graduation.

## THEORY AND HISTORY.

- Course 1.—Music as a language; analogy between music and language; notation of pitch, duration, force, timbre or color; the scales; tempo, rhythms; accents; physical basis of music; vibration of strings; overtones; tempered scale; pitch; classification of vibrations.
- Course 2.—The orchestra and its instruments; the string section; the wood wind; the brass; instruments of percussion; the orchestral score; musical groups; embellishments; musical form; figures and their treatment; thematic development; precursors of the sonata; the sonata; other sonata forms; symphony; contrapuntal forms; monophony, homophony, polyphony.

Courses 1 and 2 aim to give a knowledge of the structure of music and develop an appreciation of its content.

- Course 3.—The scale, elements of melody; exercises in melody writing; intervals; harmonic structure; tonality; principal triads of the scale; distribution of parts; four-part harmony; connection of principal triads in four-part harmony; close and dispersed harmony; inversion of triads; chord of dominant seventh; chord of ninth and inversions; harmonizing melodies.
- Course 4.—Continuation of work of course 3; minor and diminished seventh on leading tone; diminished triad; secondary triads; modulation; passing notes; suspensions; chromatically altered chords. The aim of courses 3 and 4 is to give thorough understanding of the grammatical structure of music and to enable students to harmonize themes with facility.
- Course 5.—Counterpoint: The study of contrapuntal forms; contrapuntal treatment of voice parts; practical work at keyboard and written exercises.
- Course 6.—Music of antique races; first Christian centuries—Hucbald, Guido, Franco, etc.; minnesingers, meistersingers, etc.; epoch of the Netherlands; Palestrina and the Roman schools; Orlando di Lasso and the Northern Italian masters; the Renaissance and rise of opera and oratorio; the German chorale; English madrigal writers; instruments and instrumental music in sixteenth and beginning of seventeenth centuries.
- Course 7.—Bach and Handel, Haydn, Mozart, and Beethoven; the romantic composers; dramatic music in Italy, France, and Germany; Wagner and his music dramas; composers of last twenty-five years.

#### FOR DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF MUSIC.

Evidence must be produced of-

(a) Having received a good general education.

(b) Having employed at least four years in the study and practice of music.

The candidate will be required to pass three examinations, separated by intervals of not less than one year.

The first examination will consist of harmony in not more than four parts. The second examination will be in harmony and counterpoint in not more than five parts, canon and fugue in not more than four parts. Before entering for the third examination, the candidate must compose an exercise containing five-part harmony and fugue (in at least four parts), and canon, with an accompaniment for organ, piano, or string band, sufficiently long to require twenty minutes in performance, and this exercise must be approved by the faculty in music.

The third (final) examination will consist of harmony, counterpoint, canon, fugue (in five parts), with double counterpoint, history of music, form in composition, instrumentation, figured bass reading at sight, and the analysis of the full score of some selected work.

## ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

The following entrance requirements, announced by a leading college for women, which grants credit, under restrictions, in both practical and theoretical music at entrance and toward a degree, illustrate the demands made by colleges which view music as a proper subject for inclusion in the general educational scheme.

## ELEMENTARY REQUIREMENT.

The elementary in music may be either, A, harmony, or B, a combination of a less advanced requirement in theory, with a practical study—piano, voice, violin, or other orchestral instrument.

- A. Harmony.—The examination will be adapted to the proficiency of those who have had one year's systematic training, with at least three lessons a week or its equivalent. The candidate should have acquired—
- (1) The ability to harmonize, in four vocal parts, simple melodies of not fewer than eight measures, in soprano or in bass. These melodies will require a knowledge of triads and inversions, of diatonic seventh chords and inversions, in the major and minor modes; and of modulation, transient or complete, to nearly related keys.
- (2) Analytical knowledge of ninth chords, all nonharmonic tones, and altered chords (including augmented chords). [Students are encouraged to apply this knowledge in their harmonization.]

It is urgently recommended that systematic ear training (as to interval, melody, and chord) be a part of the preparation for this examination. Simple exercises in harmonization at the pianoforte are recommended. The student will be expected to have a full knowledge of the rudiments of music, scales, intervals, and staff notation, including the terms and expression marks in common use.

B. The following requirement in theory combined with piano, voice, violin, or other orchestral instrument:

The examination in theory will be adapted to the proficiency of those who have had one year's systematic training, with at least one lesson a week or its equivalent. The candidate should have acquired:

(1) A knowledge of the rudiments of music, scales, intervals, and staff notation, including the terms and expression marks in common use; (2) the ability to analyze the harmony and form of hymn tunes and simplest pieces for the pianoforte, involving triads and the dominant seventh chord and their inversions, passing tones, and modu-

lation to nearly related keys; (3) the ability to harmonize, on paper, in four vocal parts, melodic fragments involving the use of triads and the dominant seventh chord and their inversions, in major keys.

After 1906 the candidate must also meet the following requirements in ear training. To name, as played by the examiner, intervals involving tones of the major scale, the three principal triads and the dominant seventh chord in fundamental position, and the authentic, plagal, and deceptive  $[v \text{ (or } v^7) \text{ to } vi]$  cadences; to write a diatonic, major melody of not more than four measures in simple time, involving half, quarter, eighth, and dotted notes (the melody to be played, in its entirety, three times by the examiner).

- 1. Piano.—A practical knowledge of various kinds of touch; the ability to play scales, major and minor, in simple and canon forms, in sixteenth notes (at metronome speed, \$\\_=100\$), and three-toned and four-toned arpeggios in sixteenth notes (at metronome speed \$\\_=75\$), the ability to play, with due regard to the tempo, fingering, phrasing, and expression, the studies by Hasert, Op. 50, Book 1; Haydn's Sonata in E minor (Peter's Edition, No. 2; Schirmer Edition, No. 2), the Theme and Variations from Mozart's Sonata in A major (Peter's Edition, No. 12; Schirmer Edition, No. 9), Mendelssohn's Songs without Words, Nos. 19 and 49, and Schumann's Romance in F sharp major (Op. 28, No. 2); the ability to play at sight chorales and such pieces as the first twelve numbers of Schumann's Jugend-Album (Op. 68). [A candidate may offer equivalents for the studies and pieces mentioned, on the approval of the department.]
- 2. Voice.—The ability to sing, with due regard to intonation, tone quality, expression, and enunciation, the vocalises of Concone, Op. 9, and not fewer than six of the following songs (preferably in the English version): Schubert, Who is Sylvia? and Hark, Hark, the Lark; Mendelssohn, Morgengruss; Schumann, An den Sonnenschein; Brahms, Der Sandmann; Franz, Widmung; Grieg, Das alte Lied; Chopin, Mādchens Wunsch; Massenet, Ouvre tes beaux yeux; Paine, Matin Song; the ability to play pianoforte accompaniments of the grade of Concone, Op. 9; the ability to sing at sight music of the grade of hymn tunes by Barnby, Dykes, and Stainer, and of the studies in Abt's Vocal Tutor, Part III. The student must also give evidence of having an accurate ear and of having laid a good foundation in the development of the voice. [A candidate may offer equivalents for the songs mentioned, on the approval of the department.]
- 3. Violin.—The ability to play, with due regard to bowing, fingering, tone, intonation, and expression, such studies as those by Dont (Op. 37), Mazas (Op. 36), and Kreutzer, and such pieces as the moderately difficult solos of Spohr, Wieniawski, Godard, and Ries; the ability to read at sight such music as the second violin parts of the string quartets of Haydn and Mozart.
- 4. Students wishing to be examined in the playing of other instruments should correspond with the music department.

Note.—Students considering submitting music for entrance to college are advised to correspond with the department, stating in detail what their preparation has been in theory and especially in the practical subjects. In the latter students must give evidence of thorough foundation work in the technique of the piano, voice, violin, or other instrument, in addition to being able merely to play or sing the actual requirement mentioned.

Certificates will not be accepted in music.

## CORRELATION OF MUSIC AND NONMUSIC COURSES.

In the correlation of music and nonmusic courses, colleges and universities lead. The attitude assumed by independent schools of ric appears to be similar to that taken by schools of technology

in general education; they take the position that they are professional training schools, and naturally concentrate their efforts on turning out composers, pianists, singers, theorists, and pedagogues. They do not consider nonmusical subjects to be an essential part of their curricula. Yet in the best of these schools there is shown a recognition of the value of broader culture and an inclination to include such subjects as will increase the efficiency of their graduates. The New England Conservatory of Music has recently established a reciprocal relation with Harvard University, through which students in the conservatory can attend courses in English, French, and German literature, English composition, fine arts, physics (especially acoustics), and public speaking. In college and university music departments gratifying progress has been made in the correlation of courses with those of other departments, demanding, in a very considerable number of institutions, a greater or less amount of collegiate work as a part of the graduate course in music. Reciprocally, music as an elective is receiving credit as a subject in baccalaureate courses.

## MANNER OF PROMOTING STUDENTS FROM GRADE TO GRADE.

The manner of grading students and of determining their advancement from one grade to the next is significant as indicating to what extent system and accuracy in determining the standing of music students are attained. This has been a decided obstacle in the way of the admission of music to courses leading to the baccalaureate degree. Perhaps no single disclosure by the investigation is more encouraging than this. While the advancement of students still rests in many cases with the instructor, or with the instructor and director of the department jointly, the development of a system of accurate grade marks, based on examination and recitation, gives promise of the eventual setting up of such standards as will result in the unifying of educational effort.

The following tables give the per cent of schools giving examinations in theoretical and practical music; of schools giving written, oral, and actual performance tests; of schools recording by marks the grade or quality of a student's work; and of schools in which the instructor or faculty determines passing grade:

Per cent of institutions giving examinations yearly or oftener.

Class of institutions.	In theo- retical subjects.	In prac- tical music.	Written.	Oral.	Perform- ance test.
Independent schools of music. Colleges and universities. Colleges for women. Normal schools. Secondary schools.	75 100 82	65] 66] 70 70 20	663 50 70 763 663	50 25 33 66 50	55½ 20 50 56 56 50

Secondary schools..

Per cent of institutions having a system of marks for recording grades and determining passing grade.

Class of institutions.	Recorded in all	Passing gr	ade deter- by—		
		Instructor.	Faculty.		
Independent schools of music. Colleges and universities Colleges for women Normal schools. Secondary schools	70 76]	27 60 50 77 50	73 24 50 23 50		

These figures are based on 207 replies to the second questionnaire. From the per cent of schools giving actual performance tests, it would appear that the opinion that a sufficiently accurate and systematic grading of work in practical music can not be done is losing ground, and encouragement is given the belief that there may develop a system of grading in practical music which will satisfy educators and remove one of the great obstacles to the admission of applied music to general educational courses.

# EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS OF MUSIC STUDENTS.

There appears to be a growing purpose upon the part of departments of music in colleges and universities to demand a certain amount of general educational qualification from those who wish to enter graduate courses in music. In this connection, the following table gives the per cent of music students in 595 institutions who have completed a high school course of at least three years:

·	cent.
Independent schools of music	 . 43
Colleges and universities	
Colleges for women	
Normal schools	-

Class of institutions

The time devoted to the study of music (not including preparation) is shown in the following table, which gives the per cent of students devoting less than five hours, more than five hours but less than ten, and more than ten hours per week to recitation.

Class of institutions.	Less than 5 hours.	More than 5 but less than 10 hours.	More than 10 hours.
Independent schools of music. Colleges and universities. Colleges for women. Normal schools. Secondary schools.	52 61 √3 65	Per cent. 223 +32 3245 +24 25	Per cent. 111 +14 64 + 9 + 7

# PROPERTY DEVOTED TO MUSICAL INSTRUCTION.

The questions relating to finances were not answered by 348 of the 595 schools returning statistics, hence the statements of amount of

property devoted to musical purposes and of yearly expenditures for music instruction are far from complete. They are significant, nevertheless, and if increased in proper proportion by a full statement would show a very large investment in music education. It should be remembered also that these figures refer only to organized schools, the immense sums expended on private instruction being unknown.

Libraries and museums.—In all, 39,538 volumes, valued at \$62,120, are reported by the 595 institutions. In several instances private libraries are reported as at the service of students. No museums are reported.

Property devoted to musical instruction.

ings	i	ue of build- ngs and rounds.	Value of in- struments, apparatus, and furni- ture.			rmanent owment.		umes in orary.		alue of brary.	Expense for rent.	
	Amount.	Schools re- porting.	Amount.	Schools re- porting.	Amount.	Schools reporting.	Number.	Schools re- porting.	Amount.	Schools re- porting.	Amount.	
Independent schools of music	10 31 9 	\$578, 110 1,281,600 243,000 153,750	29 64 23 51	\$159,700 319,902 163,609 208,865	1 2	\$827,000 46,000 17,500	21 35 15	23, 188 18, 164 16, 088 3, 348	18 33 13	\$22,925 19,222 13,225 3,523	26 19 3	\$53,346 13,243 1,840
Total	58	2, 256, 460	167	852,076	8	990, 500	93	60,788	84	58,895	52	78, 104

## Annual receipts from instruction in music.

		terest l rents.	Public ap- propria- tion.		Private gifts.		Concerts.		Other sources.		Students' fees.		
Class of institutions.	Schools reporting.	Schools re-	Amount.	Schools reporting.	Amount.	Schools re-	Amount.	Schools reporting.	Amount.	Schools re-	Amount.	Total.	
Independent schools of music	6 8 3	\$47,053 18,825 1,450	4	\$5,890	3 1 3	\$5,578 200 4,550	9 30 7	\$8,375 19,426 2,410		\$7,000 14,972 140	28 82 28	\$529, 563 440, 380 185, 456	\$597,569 499,693 194,006
Secondary schools	6	1,979	4	10,050	2	176	8	1,322	4	1,448	53	111,848	126, 823
Total	23	69,307	8	15,940	9	10,504	54	31,533	20	23, 560	191	1,267,247	1,418,091

## III.—STATISTICAL TABLES.

Statistics of the institutions replying to the first questionnaire are given in the tables which follow. Tables 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 summarize Tables 6, 7, 8, 9, and 10, which give in detail the number of schools, instructors, and students, and the number of graduates and of students receiving certificates during the last five years. The geographical distribution of the institutions is also shown.

TABLE 1.—Summary of the statistics of independent schools of music, showing the number of instructors, students, and graduates, and number of students receiving certificates.

	]	In	structo	rs.	Stud	ents enr	olled.		Student
•	Schools report- ing.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Gradu- ates in last 5 years.	not grad uates re- ceiving certifi- cates in last 5 years.
United States	61	306	271	607	2,527	10,850	17, 122	1,962	1,97
North Atlantic Division	28	133	115	248	1,218	3,911	6,329	662	1,03
South Atlantic Division South Central Division	1	20 8	28 14	48 22	49	362	1,200	30	
North Central Division		145	114	289	1.230	6,207	8,874	1,270	91
Western Division	i				30	280	310		
North Atlantic Division:									
Maine New Hampshire									
Vermont									
Massachusetts Rhode Island	2	11	6	17	243	822	1,065	42	2
Connecticut	i	2	5	7	18	109	127		1
New York	16	90	59	149	564	1,294	2,558	414	64
New Jersey Pennsylvania	1 8	5 25	45	70	20 373	60 1,626	2, 499	206	36
South Atlantic Division: Delaware		_	~	,		-,	] -,		-
Maryland	i	20	28	48			1,200		
District of Columbia									<b> </b>
Virginia									
North Carolina									
West Virginia North Carolina South Carolina Georgia									
Florida									
outh Central Division:			1		i		ĺ	]	1
Kentucky Tennessee	·····2	2	2	4	15	55	68	9	
Alabama									
Mississippi Louisiana									
Texas	2	6	12	18	34	307	341	21	
Arkansas		<b>-</b>							
OklahomaIndian Territory			<u> </u>						
North Central Division:	l								
OhioIndiana	6	38	12	50 30	216	1,382	1,598	199 90	
Illinois	11	61	52	113	484	2,786	4,617	688	40
Michigan	3	16 11	24 8	40 19	203 200	1,302 400	1,505	106 80	3
Minnesota	i	9	ŝ	18	10	250	260	102	
Iowa									
Missouri North Dakota	2	6	6	. 12	95	93	188		
South Dakota									
Nebraska			3	7	22	84	100	······ <u>·</u> ·	<b> </b> ;
Kansas Vestern Division:	1	•	3	l '	22	84	106	5	1
Montana									
Wyoming Colorado New Mexico									
New Mexico	[								
Arizona	1								
Utah Nevada		••••							
Idaho									
Washington			<b>-</b>				<b> </b>		
OregonCalifornia	·····i				30	280	310		
									1

Table 2.—Summary of the statistics of music departments of universities and colleges, showing the number of instructors, students, and graduates in music, and number of students receiving certificates in music.

		Instru	ctors in	music.		ts enro ments of		Canada	Student not grad
	Insti- tutions report- ing.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Gradu- ates in music in last 5 years.	uates re ceiving certifi- cates in music in last 5 years.
United States	151	336	344	680	5, 257	12,788	18,971	1,652	63
North Atlantic Division	23	88	34	122	1,253	2,063	3,316	353	4
South Atlantic Division	15	15	25	40	356	496	912	73	
South Central Division North Central Division	16 78	21 173	50 192	71	144 3,005	987 7.866	1,584 11,284	137 969	53
Western Division	19	39	43	365 82	499	1,376	1,875	120	1
North Atlantic Division:									
Maine					<i></i>		. <b></b>		) 
New Hampshire	2	4		4	88		88		
Vermont				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		·····			¦
Massachusetts Rhode Island		. 9		9	300	90	390		i · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Connectiont	1 1	10		10	34	58	92	40	i
New York	6	27	8	35	536	938	1,474	51	-
New York New Jersey Penneylvania		<u></u> .			···· <u>·</u>	l	1		
outh Atlantic Division:	10	38	26	64	295	977	1,272	262	
Delaware	1			•	ŀ			1	
Maryland	2	2	i	3	23	10	33	2	
Maryland District of Columbia									
Virginia	3	2	7	9	114	44	218	13	
West Virginia North Carolina	1 5	1 8	1 5	13	174	165	339	24 14	
South Carolina			2	10	1 76	32	38	3	1
Georgia	.1 1		. 2	<u>2</u>	2	39	41	ŏ	
Floridaouth Central Division:	2	2	7	9	31	163	194	17	<b> </b>
outh Central Division:	1		5	5	3	90	93	l .	ł
Kentucky		3	10	13	58	267	325	23	[
Alabama	1								
Mississippi									
Louisiana	1	2		2	42		42		·····
Texas	4	9 3	14 14	23 17	16 16	271 331	697 390	15 54	
Oklahoma	l i	2	1 5	1 7	10	331	380	45	
Indian Territory		2	2	4	9	28	37		
forth Central Division:	i					1		1	١
Ohio	14	25 12	28 14	53 26	271 343	1,363 389	1,634 732	245 40	:
IndianaIllinois		42	43	85	596	1,442	2, 451	250	4
Michigan	. 4	7	ii	18	47	248	295	32	_
Wisconsin	. 5	13	18	31	111	507	618	78	
Minnesota	3	4	3	7	43	170	213	12	
Missouri.	9 8	20 11	19 14	39 25	313 208	1,007 439	1,320	82 47	
North Dakota						200			
South Dakota	. 3	6	3	9	70	230	300	25	1
Nebraska	. 5	18	20	38 34	245	992	1,237	100	;
Kansas Vestern Division:	7	15	19	34	758	1,079	1,837	58	'
Montana	2	3	3	6	26	62	88	8	l
W voming		ļ							
Colorado	. 1 2	2	3	5	6	109	115		
New Mexico	. 1		2	2	17	42	59	6	
ArizonaUtah	ii	4	····i	5	138	187	325		
Nevada	: i	1	i	i		. 20	20	57	
Idaho	.  1	3	2	5	9	59	68	4	
Washington Oregon	. 3	9	12	21	90	406	496	11	1
OregonCalifornia	4	10	10	18 19	78 135	243 248	321 383	9 25	1
CRITIOLITIE		1 10	1 9	129	100	470	1 000	1 20	1

TABLE 3.—Summary of statistics of music departments in colleges for women, showing the number of instructors, students, and graduates in music, and number of students receiving certificates in music.

		Instru	ctorsir	music.	Studer depart	its enro ments of	lled in music.	Gradu-	Students not grad- uates re-
	Insti- tutions report- ing.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	ates in music in last 5 years.	ceiving certifi- cates in music in last 5 years.
United States	57	86	208	294	210	7,562	7,772	491	323
North Atlantic Division	9	20	24	44	84	1,547	1,631	74	1
South Atlantic Division South Central Division	18	25	72	97	29	2,077 1,833 1,325	2,106	121	227
North Central Division	16 13	13 21	57 52	70 73	49 48	1,833	1,882 1,373	91 205	12 83
Western Division	1	7	3	10		780	780	200	
North Atlantic Division:									
Maine	1	1	3	4	80	141	221	11	
New Hampshire	<del>.</del> .	<del>.</del>	l <b>.</b>					l <del></del> .	
Vermont				<u>.</u>		···· <u>···</u> ·	<u></u> .		
Massachusetts Rhode Island	4	14	12	26	·····	572	572	4	1
Connections	• • • • • • • • •			·····		- <i></i>	ļ	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	
New York New Jersey Pennsylvania	2	4	3	7		677	677	30	
New Jersey				l					
Pennsylvania	2	1	6	7	4	157	161	29	
South Atlantic Division: Delaware			İ						
Marvland	3	6	8	14	3	255	258	17	
District of Columbia	1	· · · · · <u>· ·</u> ·	1 1	1		14	14		
Virginia West Virginia	5	6	20	26	13	633	646	41	127
North Carolina	3	5	13	18	9	499	508	21	14
South Carolina	8	5	14	19	4	318	322	13	5
Georgia	3	3	16	19	· · · · · · · · ·	358	358	29	81
FloridaSouth Central Division:	• • • • • • • •	• • • • • • •		· · · · · · ·	· • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		• • • • • • •		
Kentucky	4	3	10	13	24	275	299	18	
Tennessee		5	11	16	20	358	378	13	
Alabama	2	2 1	13	15	0	375	375	28	10
MississippiLouisiana	3 2 1 3	Ö	9 5	10 5	5	470 95	475 95	5	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Texas	2	2	6	8		195	195	15	
Arkansas	1		3	3	0	65	65	12	2
Oklahoma									
Indian Territory	· · · · · · · · ·	•••••	• • • • • • •	• • • • • •	• • • • • • • •				• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Ohio	3	6	12	18	7	257	264	26	(
Indiana									
Illinois	3	5	9	14	23	274	297	20	1
MichiganWisconsin	• • • • • • • • •	• · · •	· · · · · • · ·		• • • • • • • •				· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Minnesota									
Iowa	7								
Missouri	7	10	31	41	18	794	812	159	8
North Dakota South Dakota		· · · · · · ·		• • • • • • •	•••••			•••••	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
Nebraska									
Kansas									
Western Division									
Montana									
Colorado									
New Mexico									
Arizona		· · · · · ·	·····	· • • • • • •	· • • • • • • •	·····			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
Utah Nevada	• • • • • • •							• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •
	• • • • • • • • •	•••••				l			
Idaho									
Washington									
Idaho	i	7	3	10		780	780		

TABLE 4.—Summary of the statistics of the music departments of normal schools, showing the number of instructors, students, and graduates in music, and number receiving certificates in music.

		Instru	ctors in	music.		ts enro ments of		Gradu-	Students not grad- uates re-
	Schools report- ing.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	ates in music in last 5 years.	ceiving certifi- cates in music in last 5 years.
United States	98	87	138	225	3, 215	12, 385	18, 994	653	86
North Atlantic Division South Atlantic Division South Central Division North Central Division Western Division	28 15 12 38 5	21 6 8 49 3	39 28 22 41 8	60 34 30 90 11	342 507 388 1,701 277	3,878 1,848 1,143 4,967 549	6,860 2,355 1,531 7,422 826	249 12 18 336 38	25 15 46
North Atlantic Division:  Maine New Hampshire. Vermont. Massachusetts. Rhode Island. Connecticut. New York. New Jersey. Pennsylvania South Atlantic Division:	2 1 1 4 1 2 9 1 7	1 1 1 2 1 1 5 1 8	2 1 3 2 15	3 1 2 5 1 3 20 1 24	66 1 2 10 2 116	260 102 68 245 60 258 2,253 100 532	326 103 70 255 60 260 5,009 100 677	199	25
Delaware Maryland District of Columbia. Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina. Georgia. Florida.	2 2 4 3 4	1 2 1 2	3 2 6 10 7	4 2 8 11 9	465 7 4 6 25	890 47 413 200 238	1,355 54 417 266 263	12	15
South Central Division: Kentucky. Tennessee. Alabama. Mississippi. Louisiana.	1 1 4	1 1 1	1 7	2 1 8	3 36 74	13 126 203	16 162 277	1	
TexasArkansas	2 1		7	7	164	188 371	188 535		
Oklahoma Indian Territory North Central Division:	3	5	6	11	111	242	353	17	
Ohio. Indiana. Illinois. Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri. North Dakota.	6 4 5 2 6 3 1 6	5 10 5 7 3 4 1	7 6 2 5 4 2 1 8	12 16 7 12 7 6 2	62 325 196 26 203 52 12 743	598 880 623 234 594 257 35 1,209	660 1,205 1,148 260 1,221 309 47 2,012	79 18 119 26	16 30
South Dakota	1 2 2	4 3	1 1 4	1 5 7	2 45 36	57 245 175	59 290 211	20	
Montana Wyoming Colorado New Mexico Arizona	1	3	3	6	13	43	56	38	
Utah Nevada Idaho Washington	1 2		1 3	1 3	15 229	93 273	108 502		
Oregon California	1	<b>-</b>	·····i	i	20	140	160		

Table 5.—Summary of the statistics of the music departments of secondary schools, showing the number of instructors, students, and graduates in music, and number of students receiving certificates in music.

		Instru	ctorsin	music.		ts enro ments of		Gradu-	Students not grad-
	Schools report- ing.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	ates in music in last 5 years.	uates re- ceiving certifi- cates in music in last 5 years.
United States	228	230	470	700	3,597	10,903	14,500	634	636
North Atlantic Division South Atlantic Division South Central Division North Central Division Western Division	87 34 35 61 11	102 32 23 61 12	182 69 49 136 34	284 101 72 197 46	1,658 274 329 1,207 129	4,473 1,769 1,370 2,771 520	6,131 2,043 1,699 3,978 649	193 108 89 218 26	187 78 42 177 149
North Atlantic Division:  Maine  New Hampshire  Vermont  Massachusetts  Rhode Island  Connecticut  New York  New Jersey  Pennsylvania  South Atlantic Division:	4 8 2 17 2 8 23 8 15	5 5 1 29 3 5 27 7 20	4 10 2 38 1 20 54 22 31	9 15 3 67 4 25 81 29 51	65 132 17 270 25 13 341 80 715	85 405 58 787 19 92 1,357 461 1,209	150 537 75 1,057 44 105 1,698 541 1,924	4 5 11 40 37 45 9 42	91 24 33
Delaware Maryland District of Columbia. Virginia. West Virginia. North Carolina. South Carolina. Georgia. Florida South Central Division:	4 5 9 5 3 1 4	3 12 3 5 5 5	2 11 18 13 11 2 6 6	5 23 21 18 16 2 9 7	54 78 47 3 3 25	234 243 330 448 223 30 115 146	298 243 384 526 270 33 118 171	25 9 9 34 2 3 4 20 6	33 11 33
Kentucky Tennessee Alabama. Mississippi	8 4 5 3	1 4	10 3 12 4	10 4 16 4	19 15 45 4	299 133 289 67	318 148 334 71	3 20 2	i.
Louisiana Texas Arkansas Oklahoma Indian Tevritory	6 5 2 2	11 3 3 1	8 5 5 2	19 8 8 8	162 42 25 17	242 126 167 47	404 168 192 64	31 32 0 1	1 1
North Central Division: Ohio. Indiana. Illinois. Michigan. Wisconsin. Minnesota. Iowa. Missouri. North Dakota.	8 2 12 4 10 2 6 10	15 1 8  15 3 3 12	17 2 32 17 12 7 18 16	32 3 40 17 27 10 21 28	190 5 55 20 268 53 69 128	377 31 468 405 288 82 351 348	567 36 523 425 556 135 420 476	22 2 23 33 28 34 45	19
South Dakota Nebraska Kansas Western Division:	2 2 3	1 3	3 5 7	4 5 10	136 28 255	88 71 262	224 99 517	8 23	131
Montana Wyoming Colorado New Mexico Arizona Utah Nevada					17	18			
Idaho	2 1 7	3 1 6	2 5 26	5 6 32	59 53	54 72 376	113 72 429	26	14

TABLE 6.—Statistics of independent schools of music.

			I	Instructors in music.	ctora	1	Students enrolled in department of music.	ts in it of		ool course re.	поте трап	ic.	to music.	-or sotaul	-il ni sən	
State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Director of music.	In- cor- pora- ted.	Male. Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	.lstoT	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	Per cent of stude pleting high scho of 3 years or mo	Per cent of student ing less than 5 week to music.  Per cent devoting	5 but less than per week to mus Per cent devoting	от тоге рег week	Students not grad Students not grad ceiving certificat	Number of volun brary.	Value of library.
CALIFORNIA.						E										
San Jose	King Conservatory of Music.	T. Loui King	Yes.	:	:	. 30	280	310	No limit.		:	-	:			
Hartford	School of Music	Willis E. Bacheller	Yes.	61	5 7	18	109	127	17 weeks		99	:	:	-	-	:
ILLINOIS.				_										_		
Chicago	American Conservatory of	John J. Hattstaedt	Yes.	:	:	. 140	1,760	1,900	10 weeks.	:	06	:	:	230 430	:	::
Chicago (523 S. West-	Chicago Conservatory of	C. Frederick Kellogg.	Yes.	67	2 4	33	10	43	3 months		100	-	:	22		:
Chicago (Clark street) Chicago (Kimball	Fine Arts. Bush Temple Conservatory. Hinshaw Conservatory	Kenneth M. Bradley. Dr. W. W. Hinshaw	Yes.	00 44	3 11 6 10	100	550 250	650	10 weeks	88		11	::			::
Chicago (243 Wabash	Leffingwell Violin School	W. W. Leffingwell	No.	6	1 10	:	:	******	do	28	:	:	:	83	4 50	:
Chicago (243 Wabash	Joseph Vilm American Vi-	Joseph Vilm	Yes.	9	20	40	20	09	5 weeks	:	100	÷	:	5 38	25	\$10
Chicago (203 Michigan	oun School. Walter Spry Piano School	Walter Spry	No.	44	1 5	5	85	06	10 weeks.	. 20	20	20	:	-	:	:
Chicago (Kimball	Chicago Conservatory	Walton Perkins	Yes.	5 22	222	88	33	647	1 term	9	100	::	₹ :	408		::
Chicago (Lake View).		G. Guttenberger	No	-	1 2	20	10	30		:	100	:	:	-		:
Chicago	Prof. Oscar Tunk's School	Oscar Tunk	No	8	1 4	21	51	72	10 weeks	. 9	:	:	1	20	-	:
Zion City	or Music. Zion City Conservatory of Music and Art.	Hyland E. Wilson	No	2	5 7	25	20	75	do	. 10	26	:	:	:	-	:

Table 6.—Statistics of independent schools of music—Continued.

	MUSIC EDU	CATION	IN .	THE	UNITE	ט כ	STATES	•		
	Value of library.			:		:				
-il ni sən	Number of volur brary.									
teal ni est	ceiving certificar	30	10		20	: :				
	Graduates in last Students not grad	06	rð	-	<b>3</b>	: 1	49	102		
to music.	Per cent devoting or more per week		-		1	:	9			
sic.	Per cent devoting 5 but less than per week to mus	:	20	i	10	: :	12	i		-
ponts ber	ing less than 5	100	80		98	:	08 01	100		100
ool course	pleting high school of 3 years or mo	20	8			10	15		900	20
-mos sans	Per cent of stude	:	:		. :	r.	: :		::	-:
	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	10 weeks	10 weeks.	4 months	10 lessons.	1 quarter.	5 weeks	10 weeks	1 term	80 10 weeks
- 1	.latoT		106	1,200 4		_	500 1	260 1	125 1	80
Students enrolled in department of music.	Female.		84	-	747	22	425	250	8 13	09
en debe	Male.		53		50	29	22 20	10	40	20
ors ic.	Total.	:	1-	8	10	63	: 88	18	-=	10
Instructors in music.	Female.	30	60	88	4.01	7	52	6	9	
Ins	Male.		4	20	919	:	16	0.	H 10	20
	In- cor- pora- ted.		Yes.	Yes.	No	No.:	Yes.	No	No.	Yes.
	Director of music.	Edgar M. Cawley	Frank A. Power	Harold Randolph	Carl FaeltenEdward L. Sumner	Sister M. Angela	Francis L. York Frederic L. Abel	Gustavus Johnson	O. A. Kircheis. Lucien E. Becker	School of Music. Gustav L. Becker
	Name of institution.	Indianapolis Conservatory of Music.	. Fairmount Conservatory of Music.	Peabody Institute Conservatory of Music.		ory	Detroit Conservatory of Music. Michigan Conservatory of Music.	. The Johnson School of Music.	Kirchels Music School Becker Bros. Conservatory of Music.	
	State and post-office.	Indianapolis	Wichita	Baltimore	Boston	Ann Arbor	Do	Minneapolis	Concordia	Jersey City Hasbrouck

NEW YORK.			_	_	_	_		-						-			
Brooklyn (98 Green	A. Arnold's Music Studio	August Arnold	No.	-	7	9	\$	20		100	-	-	:	:	14	1	
533 Frank-	Brooklyn Conservatory of	Adolf Whitelaw	No.		10	8	146	214	10 weeks	:	-	-	:	354	630	2,000	\$5,000
(542 State	Grand Italian Conserva-	Rafael E. De Stefani	No.	* *	7	10	æ	45	do	100	-	-	-	1	1	-	
Brooklyn (108 Mon-	The Master School of Music.	Madame Aurella	Yes.	-	10		8	29	1 session	100	:	100	1	-	-	-	-
Brooklyn (115 Miller	Louis H. Stagg's Studio of	Jaegn. Louis H. Stagg	Š.			15	æ	20			-		:	-		-	
Cortland	Cortland Conservatory of	Alton E. Darby	Yes.	5	6	171	8	999	20 weeks	:	:	:	:	:	:	:	:
Lockport	Frank F. Shearer's School	Frank F. Shearer	No.	7	4	8	7	- 26		-	:		:	-	-	- :	:
New York (63 Fifth	Institute of Musical Art of	Frank Damrosch	Yes.	36	28		-	700	:	20	99		-	:	61	1,500	:
New York (34 W.	the City of New York. Gullmant Organ School	William C. Carl	No.		7	17	2	41	1 year		:		i	:	i	-	:
<u>.                                    </u>	Manhattan College of Music.	Leon M. Kramer	No		12	×	8	115	10 lessons.	:	:		:	-	:	200	200
nundred and in- teenth street). New York (2 W. One hundred and twen-	Marks Conservatory of Music.	Eugene F. Marks	No.	- 67	10	37	٤	110	5 weeks	06	100					100	150
ty-first street). New York (128 W. Twenty-third	The Carlton Conservatory of Music.	John H. Carlton	No.	20	2	90	8	200	2 lessons	22	100		-	1		-	
street). New York (Broad-way and Eightleth	Virgil School of Music	Almon K. Virgil	No.	8	-20	37	8	106	No limit		100					100	200
street). New York	Wirtz Plano School	Mr. and Mrs. Conrad	No.	- 2	9			:	10 weeks	:	100	>	:	-		-	:
Peekskill	Peekskill Conservatory of	Wirtz. Henry T. Fleck	No.		က	15	8	96	do	:	20		. 08	:	-	:	:
Do	The Institute Conservatory	Charles Unterreiner	No.		8	17	72	41	do	22	100	-	:	20	1	250	200
ОН10.						_											
Cincinnati	College of Music of Cincin-	A. J. Gantvoort	Yes.	:	۵.	\$	220	019	10 weeks	80	09	40	:	118	-	:	3,000
Cleveland	The Wolfram College of	Johannes Wolfram	No.	-	00	15	150	165	Term	10	100	i	:	00	1	:	:
Do	The Cleveland School of	Alfred Arthur	Yes.	3	∞	8	170	200	10 weeks	:	100	:	:	50	-	3,500	:
Columbus	The Capitol College of Ora-	Thomas R. Davis	Yes.	2 3	<b>20</b>	88	Z	83	3 months.	20	22	70	10	15	:	1,000	200
Toledo	The Toledo Conservatory of	Bradford Mills	Yes.	4	<b>∞</b>	8	356	406	10 weeks	20	100	i	:	00	:	5,600	3,000
Warren	Dana's Musical Institute	William H. Dana	Yes.	-8	6	8	83	135	do	40	-:	20	80	45	32		

TABLE 6.—Statistics of independent schools of music—Continued.

	MUSIC EDUC	CATION	1 1.		TH.		J 14.	ITED	OIA	TES.			
	Value of library.	\$2,500	5,000	:	:	009	:		:	650	009	75	350
-II ui sət	Number of volum brary.	3,000 8	2,000	:	:	300	2,000		:	156	300	20	85
es in last	Students not grad celving certificat 5 years.	320	49	-	-	:	:		i			30	302
	G teal mi setanbaro	155	22	:	:	16	:	10	:	6	21	-	98
10 hours	Per cent devoting	30	0	-	:	-	:		1	-	10	-	
10 hours	Percent devoting i	10	20	i	:	i	:	ii	i		20	10	
ronts be	ing less than 5 l	99	20	06	:	100	:	100	i	:	75	06	100
ol course	pleting high scho of 3 years or mor	50	90	. :	100	08	:	III	10		30		90
	Per cent of stude	:	:	:	:	:	:		::		;		
	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	20 weeks	do	do	do	do	5 weeks.	20 lessons.	1 month	10 weeks	5 weeks	1 month	10 weeks
in of	Total.	1,062	115	97	200	275	210	140	34	34	235	106	009
enrolled in department of music.	Female.	862	92	32	-	250	175	75 140	31	24	220	87	400
en	Male.	200	23	33	:	22	35	25	63	10	15	19	200
Female. Total.		:	12	6	21	10	10	17	Н	60	10	oo	19
		1	70	4	16	7	9	-	1	-	7	ro.	90
	Male.		-	20	10		4	-		63	.00		= :
	In- cor- pora- ted.	No.	Yes	No.	Yes	No.	No.		No.	No.	Yes	No.	Yes
	Director of music.	Gilbert R. Combs	Kate H. Chandler	Frederick E. Hahn	Constantine Von	Beveridge Webster	Luigi Maria Von	John T. Watkins Sister M. Dolores	Mrs. Forrest Nixon	R. L. Teichfuss	Chas. W. Landon	W. B. Schimmelpfen- nig.	John H. Frank
	Name of institution.	Combs Conservatory of Music.	Pennsylvania College of	Music. The Hahn Violin School	nberg School of	gh Conservatory of	. Von Kunits School of Music.	J. T. Watkins Vocal Studio. Villa Maria (Musical Department).	Mrs. Forrest Nixon's School	of Music. Chattanooga School of Music.	Landon Conservatory of	Music. Waco Conservatory of Music.	. Wisconsin Conservatory of
	State and post-office.	PENNSYLVANIA. Philadelphia (1329–1331 S. Broad	street). Philadelphia (1511	Philadelphia (1524	Chestnut street). Philadelphia (10 S.	Pittsburg	Do	Scranton	TENNESSEE.	ChattanoogaTEXAS.	Dallas	Waco	Milwaukee

TABLE 7.—Statistics of departments of music in colleges and universities.

		DIAII	.61.	CAL	1.2	TDI	ÆÖ.							
	Value of library.		:			:	:	\$200		20		:		:
-il ni sən	Number of volum brary.		-			:		150		:8		200		
cates in	Students not grad ceiving certific music in last 5 y		:			:	140	:				33		i
	Graduates in mus 5 years.	46	- ;	œ :		;	10	:		11		40		11
to music.	Per cent devoting or more per week					:	0	:				:		:
*arc*	Percent devotings 5 but less than per week to mus		;	::		:	0	:		11		9		10
ponts ber	ing less than 5 l	100	0	::		:	100	30		100		94		06
ool course are.	Per cent of stude pleting high scho of 3 years or mo Per cent of studer	0	0	18		20	20	20		90		92		40
			:	: : :		:		18.	_		•	:	_	:
	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	1 term	1 month	22 weeks			month	months		18 weeks 6 months.		1 term		6 weeks
	A DE DE		43	87 62 1	_	10	_	110						_
nts od in eent ic.	.LatoT	198		00 00		-	101	91		25.23		92		115
Students enrolled in department of music.	Female.	190	- :	38.35		9	155	:		49		55		92
	Male.	00	:	6.0		4	14	91		2000		34		23
Instructors in music.	Total.	6	C1	101		4	4.00	000		1 4		10		90
nstructor in music.	Female.	1	2	41		3	H +C	:		:00		:		40
Ins	Male.	61	:	٦ :		П	900					10		2
	In- cor- pora- ted.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.		:	No.	Yes.				-		:
	Director of music.	William L. Thick-	stum. Mrs. Jewelle H. Cren-	shaw. Miss Hazel Yates Miss Mildred Bryant.		Madam Otto Blank-	Dwight C. Rice	Prof. Sehorcht		George M. Chadwick Edward D. Hale		Horatio Parker		Orwin A. Morse 2
	Name of institution.	Ouachita Conservatory of	Fine Arts. Arkansas Cumberland Col-	lege. University of Arkansas Philander Smith College		California College	Occidental School of Music. University of So. California	St. Mary's College		University of Colorado		Yale University		John B. Stetson University
	State and post-office.	ARKANSAS. Arkadelphia	Clarksville	Fayetteville	CALIFORNIA.	East Oakland	Los Angeles	Oakland	COLORADO.	Boulder	CONNECTICUT.	New Haven	FLORIDA.	De Lane

TABLE 7.-Statistics of departments of music in colleges and universities—Continued.

	Value of library.		\$37	:		:	17.5
-II ni sə	Number of volum brary.		21			:	82
nates in ates in	Students not grad celving certific music in last 5 ye	4				-	82 801 7 7 9
	Graduates in musi 5 years.	0	44	25	38	0	824046550 822
10 hours	Per cent devoting or more per week t	25	:	:		0	2 2 8 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2
10 hours	Percent devoting n 5 but less than per week to mus	25				0	888 88 8
	Per cent of studen ing less than 5 h week to music.	98	96	40	100	100	77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77 77
ol course re.	Per cent of stude pleting high scho of 3 years or mo	16	99	09	20	30	88 888 888 6 8
		:	ter			er.	
	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	1 term	1 semester	12 weeks	13 weeks	1 quarter	9 weeks do
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Students enrolled in department of music.	Female,	39	99	:	48	:	226 307 307 13 307 13 13 10 10 10 25 25 25
enr depan	Male.	C1	6	:	12	148	2 440 3 3 5 5 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6
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Instructors in music.	Female.	64	64	NO.	2	:	900-98444H :9F
Inst	Male.	:	00	:	61	63	0 9 8 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
	In- cor- pora- ted.	Yes.		Yes.	:	:	No. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes
	Director of music,	Miss Willie C. Davis	Isaac J. Cogswell	Mrs. Eudora M. Ester-	William D. Arm-	Rev. Henry J. Dum-	Permann H. Haeuper P. C. Lutkin. P. C. Lutkin. William F. Bentley. Grant Hadley. Miss Emily G. Kay. Miss Carrie Ripley. T. Merrill Austin. Emil Larson. Emil Larson. Frederick L. Lawrence. Resident Emil Resident Resident.
	Name of institution.	Warthen College	University of Idaho	Hedding College	Shurtleff College	St. Ignatius College	James Millikin University Northwestern University Knox College Combard College Greenville College Ferry Hall Monmouth College Northwestern College Augustana College University of Illinois St. Joseph's College Franklin College De Pauw University
	State and post-office.	GEORGIA. Wrightsville	Moscow	Abingdon	Alton	hicago	Decatur Evanston Galesburg Do Do Greenville Lake Forest Momouth Napeville Urbana Indian Tranklin

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Yes	Š. Š.		<u>!</u>	Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes.	KZZ KOO.	SZ OO O	No.	Yes.	Yes.	o o o
Mise Emma Heuse	Bro. Gerard, C. S. C Rev. Vincent Wagner.		MISS LUCIEUS C. MIMOI	Miss Grace Raymond Rev A. S. Petkert. James P. Moorbaad. Mrs. Ellen Poor. Drudley L. Smith. Miss Anne A. Young. F. E. Barrows. F. E. Barrows. Judson W. Mather	R. G. McCutchan Mrs. Robert L. Jones. Ocera M. Schoebel Charles S. Skilton Prof. Olof Valley	Joseph A. Rielog, S. J. Miss Leona Wright	Mrs. Geo. J. Burnett	Prof. J. L. Stalert	Brother Julius Carolyne H. Park- hurst.	William P. Bigelow John P. Marchall
Hanover College	University of Notre Dame St. Meinrad College	Treese Version College	Henry Kendall College	Charles City College. St. Joseph's College. Parsons College. Upper Iowa University Iowa College. Lenox College. Simpson College. Simpson College. Borningside College. Buena Vista College.	MOOMM	St. Mary's College Friends University	Liberty College	Jefferson College	Rock Hill College	Amherst College. Boston University.
Hanover	Notre Dame	INDIAN TERRITORY.	Muskogee	Charles City Dubuque Fairfield Fayette Gfmeil Hopkinton Inflanola Stour City	KANSAS.  Baldwin Emporia Hotton Lawrence Manhattan	St. Marys	KENTUCKY.	LOUISIANA. Convent	MARYLAND. Ellicott City New Windsor MASSACHUSETTS.	Amherst

TABLE 7.—Statistics of departments of music in colleges and universities—Continued.

	Value of library.			84,000		27.5		150			
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	Graduates in musi 5 years.		2	18		-=		: :•	గాలలభ		<b>∞</b>
o music.	Per cent devoting or more per week t		İ	8							T
nore than 10 hours ic.	Percent devoting n 5 but less than per week to musi		101	8		83			9		8
req stuo	Per cent of student ing less than 5 h week to music.		88	8		F88		88	22222		88
• 0	Per cent of studen pleting high scho of 3 years or mor		90 :	0,		ននីដ	_	88	828	-	
	Shortest period for which students are received.		3 months . No limit	9 weeks		9 weeks 5 months No limit		5 months 9 weeks	No limit 12 weeks 10 weeks No limit		18 weeks.
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nts I in int of	Total.		95	95		882		338	<b>3</b> ខ្លើន ន		34
Students enrolled in department of music.	Female.		% <b>3</b>	33		នមន		ខ្លួន	26212		82
dep	.olaM		1-13	12		ౚౚౙ		-45	*\$882		80
tors	Total.		900	<b>20 00</b>		888			60 co co co		40
Instructors in music.	Female.		8	90		7 -					~~
an Ti	Male.		200	200		-2-		:	8-88-	_	~ ~
	In- cor- pora- ted.			Yes.		No. Yes.		Yes.	Yes. Yes. Yes.		o Z
	Director of music.		Miss Louise Freyhofer Melville W. Chase	John B. Nykerk Elizabeth Bintliff,	<b>:</b>	William L. Gray	-	Charles Hall Fritz Kroull Miss M. Elizabeth	watkins. Edgar S. Place. William C. Chalfant. Frank L. Eyer. Zeno Nagel.		F. A. Oliner Blanche Whitaker
	Name of institution.		Michigan A IIIIIsdale C	Hope College		Carleton College. University of Minnesota. Parker College.		Clarksburg College University of Missouri Pritchett College	William Jewell College Missouri Valley College Drury College Tarkio College Central Wesleyan College.		Montana Agricultural College University of Montana
	State and post-office.	MICHIGAN.	Agricultural College. Hillsdale.	Holland	MINNESOTA.	Northfield. Minneapolis	MISSOURI.	Clarksburg Columbia Glasgow	Liberty Marshall Springfield Tarkio. Warrenton	MONTANA.	Bozeman

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-	5550	29		100		75		75	35	100	75 40		:	30	:	25	20		40 62	
	12 weeks 10 weeks do	No limit		1 year		1 semester		No limit		6 months.	6 months.		6 months.	2 months.			1 month		1 term	
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	Yes. Yes. No.	No		:		Yes.		Yes.	Yes.	::	Yes.		Yes.	:	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.		Yes.	
	B. Roscoe Shryock La Verne H. Brown Willard Kimball	Princess M. Nelson		Mrs. A. L. Layton		Charles H. Morse			William A. Thayer Rev. Ludwig Bonvin	Rev. Edward Gallag,	Ernest Rieger George F. Parker		Bro. Francis Under-	Florence Wilson, N.	Chas. D. Robinson	Miss Jennie W. Pap-	worth. Samuel S. Lash		Isabel S. Kennedy	der.
	Union College Doane College University of Nebraska Nebraska Wesleyan Univer-	Sity. York College		Nevada State University		Dartmouth CollegeSt. Anselm's College		College of Agriculture and Mecahnic Arts.	Adelphi College.	Cornell UniversitySt. John's College	Niagara University		St. Mary's College	Elon College	Agricultural and Mechanical	College. Guilford College	Catawba College		Buchtel CollegeGerman Wallace College	
NEBRASKA.	College View Crete Lincoln.	York	NEVADA.	Reno	NEW HAMPSHIRE.	Hanover	NEW MEXICO.	Agricultural College.	Brooklyn	Ithaca	Niagara University	NORTH CAROLINA.	Belmont	Elon College	Greensboro	Guilford College	Newton	оню.	Akron	

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TABLE 7.—Statistics of departments of music in colleges and universities—Continued.

	Value of Hbrary.	\$200	200	100	500 500 300 500
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nates re- ates in ears.	Students not grad celving certific music in last 5 ye	15 0 3		4	2 1
	Graduates in mus 5 years.	36 10 52 52 26 16 15 15	45	-1 10	808 37 88
10 hours to music.	Per cent devoting or more per week		22	0	20 20 22 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2
10 hours	Percent devoting n 5 but less than per week to mus	20 40 9	30	60	20 88 32 80
	Per cent of studen 5 h	80 80 100 100 91	20	75 97 100 100	8 5888 8
.91	pleting high scho	100 100 35 33	-	50	100 100 116 100 175 775 775
	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	1 term 3 months 5 weeks 1 term 10 weeks 8 weeks 8 weeks 4 term 4 term 4 term		No limit I month	10 weeks. 6 months. 12 weeks. 6 weeks. 6 months.
ts in it of	Total.	552 118 20 50 180 180	:	77 100 37	137 60 100 100 100 400 88 88
Students enrolled in department of music.	Female.	55 491 86 15 145 19		22021	108 127 127 85 83 83 57 18 79
deb	Male.	10 32 32 32 32 32 32 32	:	36 20 15	29 114 124 131 131 131 131 131 131 131 131 131 13
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Instructors in music.	Female.	8 :::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::::	10	1000	8
Inst	Male.	10 H 01 4 to	63	-4-0	2002200
	In- cor- pora- ted.	Yes. No. No.	No.	NO OO	Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes.
	Director of music.	Mrs. Eva H. Hull Charles W. Morrison. S. S. Myers. George S. Bohanan I. Frank Maguire Gustav Meyer. Ph. D. J. Lawrence Erb Florence M. Williams.	Henry D. Guelick	Carroll H. Palmer Gerard Taillandier Irving M. Glen Mrs. O. V. White	Herbert Oldham  P. Louis Haas. Chev. G. Ferrata. Dr. H. Poehlmann. Elyssée Aviragnet. Harry W. Marville. W. W. Campbell. Gearl W. Sfreland.
	Name of institution.	Muskingum College Oberlin College Manni University Rio Grande College Wittenberg College Otterbein University University of Wooster Anticoh College	State University	Albany College Oregon Agricultural College. University of Oregon. Philomath College.	Lebanon Valley College St. Vincent College Beaver College Grove City College Bucknell University Allegheny College Westmirster College The Temple College Staggoshama University
	State and post-office.	OHIO—Continued.  New Concord Oberlin Oxford Rio Grande. Springfield Westerville Wooster Yellow Springs	OKLAHOMA. Norman	OREGON. Albany Corvallis Eugene Philomath	PENNSYLVANIA. Annville Beater Grove City Lewisburg Med ville New Witnington Philadedpia. Selinsgrove.

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	14 weeks		12 weeks	1 lesson		No limit 5 months.	1 month	5 months.		3 monthsdo	No limit	3 months.	9 weeks	18 weeks	1 term	6 weeks 3 months. 18 weeks 5 weeks
1	38		100	103		80	156	22		139 75 710 73	325	888	240	105	49	75 100 310 100 33
-	32		82	38		380	120	21		134 69	187	44	180	97	53	67 70 244 100 26
	9		18	37		8	36	4		00 :00	138	34	09	25 oc	9	30 30 7
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	Yes.		:	Yes.		Yes.	Yes.			Yes. No Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	No.	No.	Yes.	No No Yes.
CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE PARTY OF THE	Miss C. Elsie Farnham		Henry H. Loudenback	Herbert M. King Lee N. Dailey		Frances C. Moffitt Rudolph Richter	Miss Jennie A. Robin-	Mrs. Laura D. Worth- ington.	)	Clara A. Oldfield Miss Myrtle Hess Rudolf Hoffman Howard E. Goodsell	William O. Robinson.	Charles W. Roller Prof. F. A. Franklin Mrs. Jessie A. Davis	W. B. Strong, Her-	bert Kimbrough. Alberta V. Munro Stephen B. L. Pen-	Jean C. Moos	T. Dillwyn Thomas Abram R. Tyler Fletcher A. Parker Emil Liebling Theodore F. Meier
Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo Carlo	Claffin University		80	Mechanic Arts. Redfield College		Grant University	Fisk University	Burritt College		South Western University Fort Worth University Baylor University Trinity University.	Brigham Young College	Bridgewater College Fredericksburg College Virginia Union University	State College of Washington.		Bethany College	Lawrence University Beloit College University of Wisconsin Milwaukee-Downer College. Ripon College
SOUTH CAROLINA.	Orangeburg	SOUTH DAKOTA.	Brookings	Redfield	TENNESSEE.	Athens	Nashville	Spencer	TEXAS.	Georgetown Fort Worth Waco Waxahachie	тан.	VIRGINIA. Bridgewater. Fredericksburg	WASHINGTON.	Tacoma. Walla Walla	WEST VIRGINIA. Bethany	WISCONSIN. Appleton. Beloit. Madison. Milwaukee.

### MUSIC EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES.

Students errolled in department of music. Shortest errolled in period for independent	Instructors en fin music. dep		Instr in in	
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14 14	1 1		:	Yes
110 1 month	-		-	Yes
100 100 4 months. 100 148 148 1 month 95	40			Yes. 1
140 No limit			4	Yes. 4
70 70 3 months. 50 86 87 1 term 40	3 34	0202	- :	Yes. 1
1 4			c	
45 45do	4 5		7	
110	_			Von

LOUISTANA.		100	3	_	_	_										1	
Clinton	Silliman Collegiate Institute.	Miss Gertrude Stone-	Yes.	1	_	;	16	16	y year	:	:	:	:	:			
Kestohie. Mansfield	Louidana Female College Manafield Female College	Miss Mary Ransom Miss Ruth Sligh	Yes.		0101	11	200	202	18 weeks	325	0	100	0	2			
MAINE.				-													
Kents Hill	Maine Wesleyan Seminary and Woman's College.	Wilson Fay Morse	Yes.	H	60	98	141	221	3 months.	75	20	20		11		103	125
Frederick Hagerstown Lutherville	The Woman's College Kee Mar College Maryland College for Women.	Maurice G. Beckwith J. Emory Shaw	No	010101	10:004	eo : :	888	888	term f term 6 months.	252	20.	-	10	17		30	92
MASSACHUSETTS.				_													
Cambridge South Hadley Wellesley	Radcliffe College Mount Holyoke College Wellesley College	Walter R. Spalding William C. Hammond Hamilton C. Maedou-	Yes.	.000	<b>m</b> 9 9	111	45 112 115	45 112 115	1 year	100	100	40				1,000	2,000
Northampton	Smith College	gall. Henry Dyke Sleeper	Yes.	2	9	:	300	300		100	66	1	:	4	1	400	:
MISSISSIPPI.				_													
Meridian	Meridian Female College	Anthony Slankowitch.	Yes.	1 9	91	2	470	475	1 term	20	:	33	40	:	:	:	:
MISSOURI.				_	_												
Columbia. Favette Fulton Lexington Liberty Mexico Nevada	Christian College. Howard Payne College Synodical College Central College for Women Liberty Laddes College Hardin College Coltey College	J. Emory Shaw Miss Namie L. Wright James M. Weddell D. F. Conrad Anrion F. Dunwody Arnold E. Guerne. Miss Anna Jansen	Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes.	0 :000	70035440 700007	1000	143 52 107 124 200 200 168	150 55 113 124 200 170	10 months hour 5 months. 1 year. 1 semester 6 months.	33 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20	100 100	8		17 15 20 20 74 74	12 12 61 8	1,500	200
NEW YORK.				_	_												
Brooklyn	Packer Collegiate Institute	R. Huntington Wood-	Yes.	1 .:	-	:	475	475	1 year	17	100	-	:	30	-	:	:
Poughkeepsie	Vassar College	George C. Gow	Yes.	3	9	:	202	202	1 semester	100	100	:		:	-	006	1,200
NORTH CAROLINA.				_	_												
Charlotte Greensboro Raleigh	Elizabeth College. Greensboro Female College Baptist University.	Harry J. Zehm. F. W. Craft.	Yes. Yes. No.	427	r040	2 H 6	72 175 252	78 176 254	10 weeks	90	1000	06 ::	20	41.	12: 23		

TABLE 8.—Statistics of departments of music in colleges for women—Continued.

	Value of library.	\$500		500 400	400		
ui səmi	Mumber of volu	3,000		- : : -			
-or setau -um ni se	Students not grad destring certificati existing the states	0		::0			100
d teal at 5	Graduates in music Jears.	72 4	29	13	10 00	12	0 0000
10 hours to music	Per cent devoting or more per week	10		0			
nore than 10 hours ic.	Percent devotingn 5 but less than per week to musi	10 12 20		15	40		20 20
red sinor	Per cent of studen ing less than 5 less than 5 less than 5 less than 5 less than 5 less to music.	888	8	5.3	60	100	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100
nts com- ol course	Per cent of stude: pleting high scho of 3 years or mor	50 84 88		75	75 10 50		18819
	Shortest period for which stu- received.	1 year 18 weeks 12 weeks		4 months. 5 months. 19 weeks	2 months.		3 months. 2 months. No limit
in int	Total.	88 91	97	104 218	888	135	12001120
Students enrolled in department of music.	Female.	28 28 28	09	104	68 68	135	110 173 100 100
enr dep	Male.	64 :10	4	4	92 ::	11	01 :: 8
ors lc.	Total.	400	0110	0041-	004	0.0	4001-8
Instructors in music.	Female.	61 00 61	014	000	10 10 10	12	40040
Inst	Male.	31.5	-	01-01	4 1		64 1400
	In- cor- pora- ted.	Yes. Yes. Yes.	Yes.	Yes. Yes.	Yes. Yes.	Yes.	Yes. Yes. Yes.
	Director of music.	Max v. L. Swarthout Alice A. Porter	Helena J. Walter Harry C. Harper	George L. Kittridge Harold A. Loring Arthur L. Manchester.	Louis Alberti	M. J. KleinMiss Frances M. Ross.	Samuel T. Schroetter. Miss Mabel F. Main. Miss Alice Crane. Emil B. Michaelis Caroline Manning
	Name of Institution.	Oxford College for Women Western College for Women Lake Erie College	Blairsville College	College for Women Limestone College Converse College	Sullins College Soule College Boscobel College	Chappell Hill Female College. San Antonio Female College.	Virginia Institute. Rawlings Institute Roanoke College. Hollins Institute. Marion College.
	State and post-office.	Oxford Do Painesville	Blairsville Mechanicsburg South Carolina	Columbia Gaffney Spartanburg	:::	Chappell Hill	Bristol. Charlottesville. Danville. Hollins.

TABLE 9.—Statistics of departments of music in normal schools.

		D1111101101	L IMD	LLD.			
-nm mi.es. -s.in mu-	Students not grad ceiving certificat sic in last 5 year		1.		25:	123	
	Graduates in mus 5 years.	1	88	:	::	101	
to music.	Per cent devoting or more perweek		0	:	11		
	Percentdevoting a per week to mus		08			99	
	Per cent of studen 5 meek to music. Per cent devoting a	12:	0	100	100	33	100
ool course re. ats devot-	Per cent of stude pleting high scho of 3 years or mo	00 0	33	10	001	10	09
		og og ; ;	:	:	-::	1211	:
	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	4 months 3 months			year	10 weeks 1 year	eeks
	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	3 mč	:		1 yes 2 yes	10 week 1 year.	20 weeks
t of	Total.	10 160 32 75	99	160	200	41 60 130 32	108
Students enrolled in department of music.	Fernale.	13880	43	140	200	83888	93
enr depar	Male.	288	13	20	61	13 10 2	15
ors	Total.	4-1-0	9	П	:00	21-12-1	-
nstructor in music.	Female.	2 3	65	-	63		Н
Instructors in music.	Male.	- ! ! !	63	:	-	!!	:
	In- cor- pora- ted.	Yes. Yes. No		No	No.	Yes. Yes.	Yes.
	Director of music.	Miss Lucy Hunter Exa Hames. Miss Anna B. Lyman. Mrs. O. Worthy	Elizabeth Gleason	Miss Lida Lennon	Marion H. Tweedy	Chas. S. Stanage Edward E. Hipsher Mrs. P. J. Fortin Miss Carrie Michael	Bessie E. Eggeman
	Name of institution.	Falkville Normal School State Normal School Emerson Normal Institute. State Normal College.	Northern Arizona Normal	State Normal School	State Normal Schooldo	State Normal School	IDAHO  Lewiston State Normal School
	State and post-office.	ALABAMA.  Falkville.  Jacksonville  Mobile.  Troy.	ARIZONA. Flagstaff	Chico	Danbury	Athens. Douglas. Milledgeville. Thomasville.	IDAHO

TABLE 9.—Statistics of departments of music in normal schools—Continued.

	State and post-office.	ILLINOIS. Carbondale Charleston. Chicago. Hoopeston. Rushville.	Danville		Le Mars	Emporia.		TOTTSTANA	
	Name of institution.	Southern Illinois State Normal	Central Normal College	Valparaiso University.	Western Union College	Kansas State Normal School	Michigan Manager of College	Middleburg Normal College	State Normal School
	Director of music.	Richard V. Black. Frederick Koch. Henry W. Fairbaak. M. D. Potter. J. A. Lantz.		Wm. F. Gaskins.	G. J. Duikeloo, B. A	Charles A. Boyle		J. S. Lawnorn	F. Samella Brown No.
	In- cor- pora- ted.	No. No.	Yes. Yes.	Yes.	Yes.	Yes.		r es.	
Instructors in music.	Male.		0100-		н	21-	-	-	11
nstructor in music.	Female, Total.	-11-1			н	4 :		-	60 40
	Male.	1 20 100 15 15 160 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15 15	3 100 4 45 100		7	1 1		14	60.44
Students enrolled in department of music.	Female.	00 125 20 420 15 28 60 50	0 150 5 10 400		12 35	26 155 10 20		9 Te	78
ed in nent o sic.	Total.	225 330 440 110	250			181 30			8 78 0 110
Į.	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	12 weeks 0 2 years 3 No limit	No limit		47 3 months	9 weeks	_	to 2 months	8 4 months.
nts com- of course	Per cent of stude pleting high scho of 3 years or mor	100 100 25 25 25	08.8		. 30	2 40	c		100
ts devot-	Per cent of studen ing less than 5 h week to music.	100	2002	1	20	80			100
nore than stuod 01	Percent devoting r 5 but less than per week to musi		25	1 :	20	20			
stuod 01	Per cent devoting or more per week		10					:	
	Graduates in musi		0 18		:	20		:	
-or setan -um ni se	Students not grand Students not grad ceiving certificate sic in last 5 years				16				

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<u>0</u> °	888	S	8 8	358583	8	92	8	8888
No limit	2 years	12 weeks	3 months.	3 months. 1 week. No limit 12 weeks	18 weeks		2 years	2 years 20 weeks
217	107	260	502	400 160 1300 80 80	280	103	100	792 450 218
200	102	234	200	230 640 231 231 640 1	242	102	100	782 426 208
17 49	10 10	58	0 0 0 0 0	170 122 520 25 16	54	П		10 24 10
- 64	0	20	444	4000-4	60.01	-	-	2
64		61 65	- :-	21-1-12			:	
-		1 9	4	21-21-12	1 33	1	Н	i- i i
Yes.	No.	No.	NXX 000	Yes. No. No. Yes.	Yes.			No.
Edward E. Philbrook Miss May Brown	Clara C. Prince. Elisabeth D. Perry. T. W. Archibald. E. L. Sunner.	Harper C. Maybee Frederick H. Pease	Helen H. Mason John Schaller Miss Elsie M. Shawe	Celia Campbell. E. H. Williams. D. R. Gebhart. P. O. Landon. Miss Mabel E. Bray. E. H. Williams.	C. W. Meeks	Irving W. Jones	Douglas H. Snyder	Edith V. Sharpe Kate Fowler. Miss Minnie M. Alger chen.
Eastern State Normal School Medawaska Training School	State Normal School Fitchburg State Normal School Salem Normal School State Normal School	Central State Normal. State Normal College.	State Normal School Dr. Martin Luther College Teachers Training School	Missouri State Normal School. Chillicothe Normal State Normal School Maryville State Normal Teachers College.	Fremont College State Normal	State Normal School	Normal Training School	State Normal School. Brooklyn Training School for Teachers. Cortland State Normal School. Jamaica Training School.
చేష	MARSACHUSETTS.  Bridgewater Fitchburg Salem Worsester	Mount Pleasant Ypsilanti	Duluth New Ulm St. Paul	Cape Girardeau. Cape Girardeau. Chillicothe. Kirkaville. Maryville. St. Louis.	Fremont Kearney	Plymouth	Paterson	Brockport Brooklyn Cortland

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TABLE 9.—Statistics of departments of music in normal schools—Continued.

				Instr in u	Instructors in music.	_	Students enrolled in epartment music.	Students enrolled in department of music.		nts com- ol course 9.	ts devot-	nore than 10 hours c.	10 hours to music.	tsal ni o	-uates re-
State and post-office.	Name of institution.	Director of mualc.	In- cor- poru- ted.	Male.	Female. Total.	Male.	Fermile	Total	Shortest period for which stu- dents are received.	pleting high scho	Per cent of student ing less than 5 h week to music.	Per cent devoting n 5 but less than per week to musi	Per cent devoting of more per week	Graduates in musi 5 years.	Students not gradi ceiving certificate sic in last 5 years
NEW YORK —cont'd. New York Do Do Potsdam	Normal College of the City of New York. New York Training School for Teachers. Teachers College, Columbia University. State Normal School (Crane Normal In-	Henry T. Fleck. Charlotte Richardson Charles H. Farnsworth. Miss Julia E. Crane	0 0 0 ZZZ	8	35-22	4 = 5 4 05 175	0 545 5 100 41	. 2,640 696 117 46	2 years 1 year. 20 weeks	100	100	9	74		
Rochester	Strute of Music). Rochester Normal Training School	Mrs. Alice C. Clement			_		-S	20	year	100	100		•	100	-
NORTH CAROLINA Asheville Greenshoro Henderson Winton	Normal and Collegiate Institute State Normal and Industrial College Henderson Normal Institute. Waters Normal Institute.	Miss Elizabeth I. Cameron. Hernan H. Hoexter M. B. Cotton. Miss Maurie M. Roberts	Yes. Yes. Yes.	24	0 0	- 0 <b>4</b>	150 150 150 150	150 150 34	l year No limitdo	122	100				
otto. Ada. Canfield Cleveland Columbus Lebunon Toledo.	Ohio Northern University North Eastern Ohio Normal College. Cleveland Normal School. Columbus Normal School. National Normal University Training School for Teachers.		X Yes.	8 8-	88	201 : :23 :		16 68 68 88	10 weeks 2 years 8 weeks 2 years	100 100 100 100	25 00 100 23	25 64	88	F2	
OKLAHOMA. Alva. Edmond Weutherford.	Northwestern State Normal.  S. G. Smith Southwestern State Normal School.  Rollin M. Pease.	S. G. Smith.	Yes. Yes.	98-	999	440 WE	32 4 57 125 80	200 240 54	No limit	20.	8 3	12	10	-0 EJ	

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25 25 25	i	17	1	-	-	100		11	11	0 8
250 100 57	100	100 100	i	66	÷	0	100	100	100	100
00 : 82	100	12	100	100		25	12	25	25	360808
No limitdo I lesson I term No limitdo	2 years	No limit 3 months.	12 weeks	4 months.		1 year	1 term	No limitdo	12 weeks	1 year 20 weeks 10 weeks 5months
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2565655	09	20 15 225	22	126	371	89	310	170	25	77 207 200 110
15 7 7 7 10 50 50 30	;	- 22	¢1	36	164	61	465	180	21.0	13 100 31 2
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Yes. Yes. No.	Yes.	No		Yes.	•	Yes.		No.		Yes. No.
Miss Portia Starr. Mars M. Altee Cory Edwin A. Gowen. Hamin E. Cogswell. George C. Young.	Emory P. Russell	Miss Myrta G. Parsons. Hattle P. NealA. O. Bauer	Susan W. Norton	Harry P. Weld	Miss M. Manora Baylan.	Miss Lena Lord	Ethel V. Cooledge	Miss Mabel M. Moore Myra R. Wylie	Miss Mildred Ruddell Lucile W. Elliott	Nora Murley Ruth E. Walling Barbara C. Moore Frank F. Churchill Otto A. Singenberger. Mrs. Cora A. Merry.
State Normal School. Southwestern State Normal School. Clarion State Normal School. State Normal School. Indiana State Normal School. Keystone State Normal School. State Normal School.	Rhode Island Normal School	Brewer Normal School Lancaster Normal and Industrial Insti- tute. Winthrop College.	Madison State Normal School	Peabody College for Teachers	North Texas State Normal	State Normal School	State Female Normal School	Washington State Normal	State Normal School. West Liberty State Normal.	Dunn County Normal Miwaukee State Normal School. State Normal School. Cotholic Normal School. State Normal School.
PENNSYLVANIA. Bloomsburg California. Clarion Edinboro Indiana. Kutztown Mansfeld.	Providence	Greenwood Lancaster Rock Hill	SOUTH DAKOTA. Madison	TENNESSEE. Nashville.	Denton	Johnson	Farmville	BillinghamCheney	Glenville	Menominee Milwaukee Oshkosh Platteville St. Francis

TABLE 10.—Statistics of departments of music in secondary schools.

	State and post-office.	ALABAMA.	Anniston		Montgomery	ARKANSAS.	Amity		tock	CALIFORNIA.		Do		Sacramento	COLORADO.	Colorado Springs
	Name of institution.		Noble Institute Pollock Stephens College of	Music. Lineville College	Calboun-Chamberlain School Baptist Collegiate Institute		Amity High School	Clery Training School	Arkansas School for the Blind.		St. Mathews School.	Harvard Military School for	Convent of Our Lady of the	St. Joseph AcademySt. Rose Academy		Colorado State School for Deaf and Blind.
	Director of music.		Mrs. Edna Gurren Henry T. Statts		Miss Neta Jones		Miss Myrle Cluxton				Joseph Smith		Sister Rose	Sister Mary Michael Sister M. Bernard	1	A. L. Bohrer
	In- cor- pora- ted.		No.	No.	No.		Yes.				No.	No.	Yes.	Yes.		No.
Instr in n	Мале.		:-	1			:	: :-	- 67		8-		1	111		64
Instructors in music.	Female. Total.		40		20				. 5			0	9	×44		-
	Male.		4 4	2 32	3		11		4 30		8 8	2 40	1	00 44 4 00 54		3 17
Students enrolled in department of music.	Female.		100		2. 40	_	3 22	325			3	:	75	3 93 2 110 2 58		18
d in ent of c.	.latoT		101		52			318			80		75	96 110 60		35
Chortock	period for which stu- dents are received.		1 month	do	3 months 1 month.		No limit.	1 month	No limit.		6 months	1 year	10 weeks	5 months 1 session. 5 months		10 months
-10V9D RJI	Per cent of stude pleting high school 3 years or mo Per cent of studer ing less than 5			25	222		. 75 10	40 10			0	10	09	48.9		-
orom an	Week to music. Per cent devoti than 5 but less hours per week		90	50 50	80		001	001	0 25		001	100	20 75	60 40		0 16
stuod 01;	Per cent devoting or more per week			:	!!		:		7.57		:		4			19
teal ni sis	Graduates in mus 5 years.			6	010		. 25		1				00	16		:
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School for the Blind St. Joseph Seminary Ingleside School Ars. Mead's School for Girls. The Phelps School Gunnery School for Boys. Wykeham Rise School The Campbell School for Girls.	Gunston Hall. Laise-Phillips School.	Washington (601 E. St. Cecelias Academy. Capitol street). Washington (240) Massaehusetts	Washington College	Presbyterian College of Florida. Cookman Institute Convent of the Holy Names	Washington Seminary. Perry-Rainey Institute. Pane College. Epworth Seminary.	Ursuline Academy of the Holy Family. Academy of Our Lady Kenwood Institute. St. Joseph's Seminary. Gittings Seminary. Wever Academy Mendota College. Frances Shimer Academy. St. Mary's Academy. Academy of Our Lady.

TABLE 10.—Statistics of departments of music in secondary schools—Continued.

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	Director of music.	Cornelia I. Stayner John D. Brunk	J. Aba Sager	Sister M. Carmel Hans T. Selfert W. Crain, M. B Gertrude Whiting Sister Mary Oswald J. E. Vance	Mother Antoinette Miss Stella Robbins D. A. Hirschler	Miss Mary P. Lord. Mrs. Morgan Yewell. Miss Willanna Smith. Margaret E. Denham. Sister Salesia. E. Jeannette Peterson.
	Name of institution.	Knickerbocker Hall	El Meta Bond CollegeIndianola College	Mount St. Clare Academy St. Katharines School. Epworth Seminary. Tobin College. Our Lady of Angels Seminary. Iowa College for the Blind	Nazareth Academy Haskell Institute. Bethel College	Bellwood Seminary Boardstown Baptist Institute, Marvin College Notre Dame Convent Lynnland Institute Lees Collegiate Institute St. Catherines Academy Sie Bennett Memorial School.
	State and post-office.	INDIANA. Indianapolis	INDIAN TERRITORY. Minco	IOWA.  Clinton Davenport. Epworth. Fort Dodge. Lyons.	Concordia. Lawrence. Newton. KENTUCKY.	Anchorage Boardstown Clinton Covington Glendale Jackson Lexington London

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	Higgins Classical Institute Maine Certral Institute Van Buren College Coburn Classical Institute	Academy of the Visitation Mount St., Joseph's College Jacob Tome Institute The Hannah More Academy	Abbot Academy. Boston Academy of Notre Dame.	Perkins Institution for the	Bradford Academy Hitchcock Free Academy Middlesex School.	Leicester Academy Whittier School (Girls)	Walnut Hill School for Girls. Friends Academy. Mosher. Home Preparatory	Northampton School for Girls. Notre Dame Academy	The Machluffe School (Girls) Quincy Mansion School Kimball School for Girls		Michigan Seminary Sacred Heart School St. Mary's Academy St. Fredericks School		Pack Region Luther College Pillsbury Academy		Mount Hermon Seminary Montrose High School	Edward McGehu College for Girls.
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Table 10.—Statistics of departments of music in secondary schools—Continued.

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	Director of music.			F. E. Miller and Mrs.	Grace Johnston. Leta Clark.	Rev. Gregory Hugh	Miss Lula Haynes	Lillie F. Clark		Prof. Menton Crosse.	Mrs. Mary L. Malkoll.		Amanda Hansen	Sister M. Agnes	,	George W. Russell	James C. Knox.	Sr. St. Anthony of		Carlotta E. Gilbert Yes.
	Name of institution.			Kemper Military School	Hooper Institute	Conception College	Haynes Ac			St. Teresas	Missouri School for the Blind			St. Francis Academy			St. Paul's School.	Convent of Jesus Mary	Kimball Union Academy	The Colby Academy
	State and post-office.		MISSOURI.	Boonville	Clarksburg	Conception	Excelsior Springs	rarmington	Fulton	Kansas City	St. Louis	NEBRASKA.	Blair.	Columnus	MEN HAMI SHIME.	AndoverCenter Strafford	Concord	Manchester	Meriden	New LondonTilton

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Peckskill Pettsburgh Pert Henry Terrytown Waterfown Yonkers	Peekskill Military Academy. D'Y ouville Academy Champlain Academy Hackley School. Immaculate Heart Academy. The Halsted School.	Haas T. Seifert Sister St. Emile. Sister M. Agnes. John D. Hazen Sister M. Cecilia Jane C. Wilson.	Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes.	8 1 1 1 1 1	: बाधारा करा धाकारा करा	205832	88 용표	188812	do 10 weeks 1 year 1 term 30 minutes	0.8 04 ; ; ;	100 40 5	50 50	20	10	· m		
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Table 10.—Statistics of departments of music in secondary schools—Continued.

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	In- cor- pora- ted.		Yes	Yes.	2 0 S	Yes.	Yes	No.		Yes.		o a	
	Director of music.		Sister of Notre Dame	Sister Aloysius	Miss N. C. Fisher	V. Winter, S. J	Sister M. Evangelista E. C. Marshall	Sister Superior		Luther Conradi T. U. Liggitt	Wiss C. I. Thompson	Miss Urania D. Matz Miss Else West Rulon	David D. Wood
	Name of institution.				St. Mary's Institute. Glendale College. Ursuline Academy for Young	Ladies St. Johns College and Univer-	St. Joseph's Academy Epworth University	St. Helens Hall		Baldwin School for Girls Jefferson Academy Cerlisia Indian Indiatrie	College	Abington Friends School Linden Hall Seminary West Pennsylvania Classical	and Scientific Institute. Pennsylvania Institute for Blind.
	State and post-office.	оню.	Cheveland.	Dayton	Glendale. St. Martin	Toledo	OKLAHOMA. GuthrieOklahoma City	OREGON. Portland	FENNSYLVANIA.	Bryn MawrCanonsburg	Do	Jenkintown. Lititz.	

95 1-	Laura G. French Weirlch Louise H. Haynes.	Yes.	10 01 : :	∞ co co ∡	18	8535	ខននិទី	4 months 1 term 1 quarter .	100	100			15	300	98	\$50
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Table 10.—Statistics of departments of music in secondary schools—Continued.

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	In- cor- pora- ted.	Yes. Yes.	XX Kes.	Yes.	Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes. Yes.
	Director of music.	Beulah E. McNemar. Prof. F. R. Webb. Helen F. Young	Frederick Benson J. Erwin Price. Mrs. A. B. Hamaker Sister J. Aloyshis Sr. M. Genevleve	Miss Lueben Sister Stanislaus	Martha K. Roberts. Miss Vera Brewton. Anna Boyce. B. T. Rogers. Arthur Glers. Charles Schaefer. Edward Wentz. Wenter M. Shiele.
	Name of institution.	Shenandoah College Virginia Female Institute Sweet Briar Institute	Wesleyan College. Powhatan College. Stephenson Seminary. St. Joseph's Academy. St. Augustine's School.	College of Our Lady of Lourdes St. Joseph's Parochial School.	Wayland Academy Endeavor Academy Evansville Seminary Grafton Hall Gale College Wisconsin School for the Blind St. Law wence College The Mission House St. Mary's Academy Sacred Heart College
	State and post-office.	VIRGINIA—cont'd. Reliance Staunton WEST VIRGINIA.	: : : : :	WASHINGTON. South Park Uniontown	

#### IV. PAST AND PRESENT TENDENCIES.

It already has been noted that the development of music education has moved along four lines, namely, in the public schools, by private teachers, in colleges and universities, and in independent music schools. The impulse given by the old singing school, with its crude attempts to teach the reading of music by note to adults, naturally led to efforts in the same direction with children, and music in the public schools was the result. The activity of individuals resulted in a constantly increasing body of private teachers of various instruments and musical theory. This body received many accessions of trained musicians whom the unsettled social and political conditions of Europe sent to this country, and who gained their livelihood by teaching music. The gradual establishment of schools of music and of departments of music in connection with colleges followed, and the movement toward a formal music education was fully launched. Undoubtedly, among these agencies there were many with high ideals and more or less definite educational purposes, but influences were quickly at work which were to give a decidedly wrong bent to music instruction. Composition and performance were the goals toward which all efforts were directed, and with no educational precedents existing for the guidance of those engaged in it, music teaching rapidly became imbued with false ideals, and, in time, the affected virtuoso, the specialist, flourished, finding many disciples, and the purpose of music education steadily narrowed.

It is not surprising, however, that the pedagogic development of music in its earlier stages, under the conditions dominant in a country whose energies were chiefly employed in the expansion of commerce and manufactures, should be lacking in system. When the progress. in the United States, of educational movements generally is considered, it is not remarkable that in an art so elaborate and complex as music confusion should exist and much pioneer work be necessary, and that mistakes both of commission and omission would be made before music education should be fully understood, and the principles on which it should be based be clearly formulated. While the historical statement may indicate the absence of a guiding principle, a lack of unity in effort, and confusion of opinion as to what constituted the true office of music and the real nature of music education, it also supplies evidence that there has been a demand for musical culture, and that those who took upon them the labors of the pioneer perceived this, and, realizing the need for a better education of the people in music, were not astray in their estimate of what that need was. The projectors of the old singing school builded better than they knew when they attempted to initiate the people into the mysteries of musical notation, and gave impetus to an impulse which

was to bear good fruit. Despite their slight musical equipment and the crudity of their instruction, they were keen enough to perceive that music was an important part of the life of the people and could be made more productive of good by educating them in the essentials of music culture. It was the departure from this purpose by those who followed that gave rise to the confusion which so quickly developed as the cultivation of music increased, and that circumscribed the scope of music education, limiting it for many years almost entirely to the field of professional training.

The practice of music, rapidly developing into well-defined specialties, each possessing its own peculiar technique and requirements of instruction, attracted a constantly increasing body of students whose entire attention became more and more absorbed by the form in which they were specially interested. This absorption in some particular manifestation of music produced sharply drawn lines of separation, and caused formulators of methods of instruction to lose sight of two truths which underlie music education equally with other forms, and which must be taken into account by those who would place music where it rightfully belongs in the scheme of public education: First, that to be educationally valuable music must speak a message to the people at large, who must be prepared to understand and appreciate its utterances; and, second, that while there are various forms of musical manifestation they are all branches of the parent music trunk, their fruitfulness depending upon the proper cultivation of the stem from which they derive their life; and whether music be viewed from the standpoint of the creator, theorist, performer, or pedagogue; whether it be taught in the public school, the college, the university, the conservatory, or by private teacher, underlying all instruction are basic educational principles requiring recognition and logical development; and however divergent the activities of the different exponents of music eventually may become, there is a point where their specialization emerges from the parent art.

The failure of musicians to apprehend these truths has constituted the weakness of the educational activities of the past forty years. It was the excessive emphasis placed on the vocational aspect of music, exalting it unduly, which relegated to the background and ultimately obscured that view which sees in music a close connection with social and national life, and opens up a vast field of cultural education in which the people can participate. This restriction of the office of music has come to pass despite the fact that history is replete with illustrations of the intimacy existing between it and personal, social, and national life in the expression of the deeper feelings of human nature. Dominated by this narrow view, the aim of music teaching has been the making of players and singers or the development of composers, and back of the activities of those who

have dictated methods of instruction has been the conviction that peculiar and pronounced talent must determine the advisability of music instruction, those only who are so fortunate as to possess this God-given ability being worthy of serious attention, while for the less fortunate majority music is a sealed book.

This narrowness of outlook and the absence of definite standards of instruction naturally have made themselves felt in music teach-Specialized forms of study have been thrust upon students almost with the first lesson. Technique became the sine qua non of all effort. No provision was made for foundational preparation, and the necessity for any breadth of culture was entirely ignored. Music departments and conservatories became technical training schools. and private teachers emulated their example. Well-defined courses of study, progressing logically and systematically from grade to grade to the point where specialization could properly begin and specific professional preparation be entered upon to advantage, were so rare as to be a negligible quantity in estimating the status of music education, and the correlation of music and nonmusic courses was prac-The status of music in universities and colleges tically unknown. was also unsatisfactory, on account of the reason for its installation being in doubt, some holding that it should be for the purpose of supplying a music education on a somewhat higher level than that furnished by the primary grades, others seeking to secure for it recognition as a professional specialty in common with other specialties of the university system, while the college authorities themselves looked upon it as a good thing for the treasury but of little or no moment in the general scheme of education. Sharp distinctions were drawn between the advocates of music as a part of the public school work and those who, by right of their training and standing as professional musicians, considered themselves the true exponents of music. Lack of coordination and cooperation left a wide chasm between the more elementary work, as carried on in the primary grades, and the advanced courses outlined in colleges and universities.

The result of these conditions was the complete separation of music from general educational thought. Trained educators naturally were quick to perceive the lack of standardization in methods and the pedagogic inefficiency of those to whom the development of music education was intrusted, and of course gave music a valuation no higher than that at which it was appraised by the majority of its exponents. The unscientific character of music teaching, the prevalence of haphazard systems of instruction, and the undue emphasis placed upon the personal equation repelled educators, who accepted the statement of musicians themselves that temperament and natural endowment are indispensable in music education. The fact that

not only the average teacher of music, whatever might be his or her sincerity, was of restricted education and intellectual ambition, but that too frequently music's most prominent exponents were of equally narrow intellectual horizon, strongly militated against music as an educational force. What has been the attitude of organized educational forces toward music is significantly expressed in the oftrepeated story of the principal of a girl's school, who asked a prospective student, "Do you come here to study, or to take music?" However unfair this attitude may be considered by those who, sounding the depths of musical science and art, realize its potentialities, it is apparently abundantly justified by the conditions which have prevailed until within recent years.

Turning from this contemplation of past conditions and tendencies to those of the present, we find many of the evils named still existing. The misapprehension of years is not easily removed, and the segregation of teachers, the absence of standards, and the spirit of specialization arising from the excessive cultivation of music as a vocation, which has dictated the various schemes of instruction for so many years, are conditions not to be quickly overcome. Yet there are abundant indications that influences are now at work which have leavened the lump and are already making themselves strongly felt. There has grown into appreciable proportions a class of musicians who decidedly deprecate the narrowness and inefficiency of the past, and are making strenuous and well-directed efforts to broaden the character and improve the efficiency of music teaching. meetings of their associations, in their studios and class rooms, and in print they are carrying on a propaganda which strikes at the root of the evils which have existed for so long a time. Earnest attempts are made by exponents of music education in the public schools, conservatories, and colleges, and among private teachers to get together. to establish standards, to unify courses of study, and to supply missing links in the educational chain. The day of the pretentious virtuoso is past: there is a growing conviction that the long-cherished belief that music teaching should be confined to those who are temperamentally endowed is a serious mistake. The importance of foundational work is being realized, and the beneficent effects upon the musician of a broad culture are becoming more and more appreciated.

Teachers of various instruments and of voice are making systematic efforts to prepare curricula which will be uniform in standard, doing away with the desultory and unregulated methods of the past. Theorists are discussing questions the solutions of which will make for uniformity. Teachers in public schools are steadily seeking to improve both the matter and the method of their phase of music education, rectifying inaccuracies of grading and bridging over the

chasm between elementary and advanced grades. The cultivation of music in its foundational aspects and as a part of the life of the people is being given intelligent consideration. Pedagogic principles as a basis for further development are being given attention, and the trend is strongly toward efficiency, uniformity, coordination, and cooperation.

The body of musicians to be inoculated with sound pedagogic principles and breadth of view is large, many of its members are isolated, commercialism is still strong, and many are yet too much inclined to be satisfied with methods with which they are familiar and too indifferent to take the trouble involved in improvement; but the germ has been implanted, and although it may take time it will do its work.

Perhaps the most significant fact which an investigation of present tendencies shows is the marked change in their attitude toward music of the dominating forces in educational movements to-day, namely, the colleges and universities. While music is still made to feel that it is only tolerated in some institutions, there has come to pass what may rightfully be esteemed a remarkable change of heart upon the part of many institutions of the highest grade and influence. It is clear that the separation between music and general educational thought is not only being rapidly lessened, but that it will completely disappear in a much shorter time than past conditions would warrant one in predicting. The report of an investigation of the present status of music in colleges, conducted by a committee appointed by the Eastern Educational Music Conference, gives some exceedingly interesting information on this point. A list of questions concerning the granting of credit for the study of music, both for entrance and during the college course, was sent to a number of leading universities and colleges in various parts of the country, but particularly in New England and the Middle States, where educational precedent is most strong. One hundred and twenty-three replies were received. Fifty-eight institutions do not maintain music departments. Of these, 15 give the following reasons for the absence of such departments: No means, 8; no demand, 3; music not a collegiate study, 3; lack of time, 1. New York University replies: "If we were given an endowment for such courses, we should offer them gladly." Of the remaining 65 institutions, 58 give credit for the study of music, either at entrance or during the course leading to a degree, or both. Among the institutions granting credit in music both for entrance and toward a degree are Amherst, Barnard, Beloit; College of St. Angela, Colorado; Columbia University, Cornell University, Harvard University, Oberlin,



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>The full report can be obtained by addressing Prof. Leonard B. McWhood, Columbia University, New York City, N. Y.

<sup>50743--08----6</sup> 

Radcliffe, Smith, State College of Washington, Syracuse University, • Tufts, Westminster, and Wilson.

Those that grant entrance credit but not toward a degree are Leland Stanford University, University of North Dakota, and University of Tennessee. The first of these has no department of music, and its recognition (August, 1907) of the value of entrance credit in music to the amount of three points out of fifteen required is significant.

Among the institutions that grant credit toward a degree but not at entrance are the Universities of Arkansas, Colorado, Idaho, Illinois, Iowa, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin; Dartmouth and Mount Holyoke colleges, Northwestern University, Ohio Wesleyan University, University of Nashville, Vassar and Wellesley colleges, Yale University, and Converse College.

The subjects for which credit is given, and the number of colleges granting such credit, are as follows:

Branches in which credit is allowed.		Toward a degree
Musical appreciation, including history of music, etc. Harmony. Counterpoint, including fugue, etc. Composition, including form, etc. Practical music (performance).	9 18 9 0 10	42 47 33 18 21

The significance of these figures lies in the fact that these credits are for the degree of bachelor of arts or its equivalent, and not for professional courses.

#### V. CONCLUSION.

It is clear that the present status of formal music education is one of transition. With many independent schools of music, colleges, and universities offering well-conceived music courses of high standard, there is still lacking the unity and complete coordination of effort that should characterize a well-grounded scheme of education. The courses of each institution follow each other sequentially, but no uniform standard is maintained by which their relative merit and adaptability can be assured, and which will unify the work of all institutions offering such courses into a thoroughly organized system. Each school is a law unto itself; hence when a student presents credits from one to another there is no basis of agreement as to the value of such credits. Secondary schools, which in general education take care to have their courses closely articulated with those of institutions of higher education, attempt the same grade of music instruction

as the best equipped conservatory or college. There are no secondary music schools. A well-defined, properly regulated development of music education from its most elementary to its highest grades does not yet exist.

Music needs the college atmosphere, its spirit of culture, and its well-directed effort. It needs the application to its methods of the system and orderliness that characterize college work. These need not, and will not, check its artistic attributes, but they will bring to it system in classification and thoroughness and accuracy in the coordination of its elements. That such a consummation will be reached present conditions give basis for belief.

If this investigation of present conditions in formal music education reveals weaknesses in organization and misdirection of effort, it also shows decided gains in many essentials of future development. It discloses great musical activity in colleges and universities, and by its revelation of the critical attention now paid to the preparation of music courses and their correlation with other subjects of the curriculum, it gives encouragement to musicians to redouble their efforts for the elevation of standards of musical scholarship in all its phases.

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#### SUBJECT INDEX.

[Titles of chapters and subchapters are printed in italics.]

Bibliography:
Works on the history of music in America, 16.
Works on music education by American authors, 83.

Boston Academy of Music, 13.
Boston Conservatory of Music, 15.
Chicago College of Music, 15.
Cincinnati Conservatory of Music, 15.
Cleveland Conservatory of Music, 15.
Colleges and Universities: Detail statistical table, 53.

Summary of statistics of music departments,

Colleges for women:

Colleges for women:
Detail statistical table, 60.
Summary of statistics of music departments, 46.
Correlation of music and nonmusic courses, 40.
Courses of study in music offered by typical musical schools, 21-40.
Credit toward degree for music study in universities and colleges, 81.
Curricula of typical musical schools, 21-40.
Dana's Musical Institute, 15.
Departments of music in colleges, etc., 15.
Detroit Conservatory of Music, 15.
Educational qualifications of music students, 42.
Entrance requirements of typical musical schools, 29, 35, 39.
Examinations for diplomas given by typical musical schools, 23, 28.
Handel and Haydn Society of Boston, 12.
Harvard Musical Association, 15.

Harvard University, 41.

Historical development of music study in the United States, 11.

Independent schools of music:
Detail statistical table, 49.

Summary table of statistics, 44.

Libraries and museums, 43.

New England Conservatory of Music, 14, 41.

New York University, 81.

Normal schools:

Detail statistical table of music departments, 63.

Summary of statistics of music departments, 47.

Oberlin Conservatory of Music, 15. Organ, outline of illustrative courses of study, 24

34, 38.

Philadelphia Musical Academy, 15.

Plandorte, outline of illustrative courses of study, 24, 28, 33, 36.

Promotion of students, 41.

Receipts of music schools from instruction in mu-

sic, 43.

Schools and Conservatories of music, 14.

Singing, outline of illustrative courses of study, 23, 27, 28, 34, 37.

Singing schools in early days, 12.

Secondary schools:

Detail statistical table of music depart-

ments, 68.

Summary of statistics of music departments, 48.

Violin, outline of illustrative courses of study, 24
34, 37.

#### NAME INDEX.

[The names given in the statistical tables are excluded.]

Apthorp, William Foster, 83.
Baker, B. B., 13.
Bartholomew, E. F., 83.
Baur, Miss, 15.
Brooks, Henry Mason, 16.
Clarke, Hugh A., 16.
Colburn, William, 13.
Cutler, Benjamin, 83.
Dickinson, Edward, 83.
Eichberg, Julius, 15.
Eison, Louis Charles, 17, 83.
Finck, Henry T., 83.
Goepp, Philip H., 83.
Goetchins, Percy, 83.
Gould, N. D., 12, 13.
Gow, George Coleman, 83.
Henderson, William James, 83.
Howe, Granville L., 17.
Jones, Darius E., 13.
Krehbiel, Henry Edward, 83.

Manchester, Arthur L., 84.
Mason, Lowell, 12, 13.
Mason, T. B., 13.
Mason, T. B., 13.
Mathews, W. S. B., 17.
Mees, Arthur, 84.
Morze, Karl, 84.
Morse, Prof. Edward S., 16.
Paine, John K., 16.
Parker, Prof. F. A., 9.
Pratt, Prof. Waldo S., 5, 9.
Rice, Fenelon B., 16.
Ritter, Frédéric Louis, 15, 16, 17.
Russell, Louis Arthur, 84.
Ryan, Thomas, 17.
Sonneck, Oscar George Theodore, 17.
Tourgée, Eben, 14.
Tuckey, William, 12.
Van Dyke, J. C., 17.
White, William Alfred, 84.
Ziegfeld, 15. (anchester, Arthur L., 84.

85

## UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION

**BULLETIN, 1908: NO. 5** 

WHOLE NUMBER 388

# EDUCATION IN FORMOSA

By JULEAN H. ARNOLD

AMERICAN CONSUL TAMSUI, FORMOSA



WASHINGTON
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## TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	Page.
LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL	5
Preface	7
1. Education under the Dutch (1624–1661).	
1. The Dutch East India Company	
2. Description of the inhabitants of South Formosa	9
3. Beginnings of Dutch missionary work	
4. Schools for the aborigines; methods of instruction	11
5. Rules for imparting religious instruction	
6. Proposed college for training native clergy	
7. Results of the labors of the Dutch	
II. Education under the Chinese (1661-1683 and 1683-1895):	
1. Koxinga and his successor	15
2. Conditions in Formosa when it became a Chinese possession	
3. Education of the Chinese	
(a) Object of education	
(b) System of control	
(c) Establishment of prefectural and district schools	
(d) The Imperial examinations	
(e) Work of Governor Liu Ming Chuan	
(f) Private schools	
4. Schools for the aborigines	21
(a) First attempts	
(b) Schools established in 1735	
(c) Educational work among the tribes in the East and South	
(d) Aboriginal education under the progressive governor, Liu	
Chuan	
5. Summary of education under the Chinese	
III. Education under the Japanese (from 1895)	
1. Status of education in Japan	
2. Conditions in Formosa	
3. Establishment of an educational system	29
4. Census returns having to do with education	
5. Schools for natives (Chinese)	31
(a) Elementary public schools	
Administration, establishment, and maintenance	
Buildings and equipments	
Teachers	
Course of study and text-books	
Pupils	
(b) Secondary public schools	
The Language School	
The Girls' School	
The Medical School	
THE PROGRAM CONTROL	11

III. Education under the Japanese (from 1895)—Continued.	
5. Schools for natives (Chinese)—Continued.	
(b) Secondary public schools—Continued.	Page.
The Agricultural School	40
The Industrial Sugar School	
(c) Private schools	
6. Schools for the Japanese	
(a) Elementary schools	5
(b) Secondary schools	
The Middle School	
The normal department	5
The Girls' Higher School	
7. Schools for aborigines	
8. Summary, contrasting education under the Japanese with edu	cation .
under the Dutch and under the Chinese	
APPENDIX: Missionary schools	
(a) The Spanish Mission	
(b) The English Presbyterian Mission	
(c) The Canadian Presbyterian Mission	
Index	69

# ILLUSTRATIONS.

	To face	page.
Plate I.	The Shirin Public School	32
II.	Class Room in the Language School.	42
III.	A Class in Physical Culture	41
IV.	A Class in Reading in the Shirin Girls' School	44
v.	A, Taihoku City Elementary School for Japanese; B, Teachers and	
	Punils of a School for Aborigines	52

# LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
BUREAU OF EDUCATION,
Washington, June 25, 1908.

Sir: The manuscript which I am transmitting herewith, on Education in Formosa, was prepared by Mr. Julean H. Arnold, American consul at Tamsui, Formosa, and was sent by him to the Department of State. Through the courtesy of the Smithsonian Institution, to which office the paper had been transmitted by the Department of State, I have secured it for publication in the Bulletin of the Bureau of Education, and have the honor to recommend that it be published as one of the numbers of that Bulletin for the current year.

The special interest attaching to this report of Mr. Arnold's arises from the fact that the educational campaign of the Japanese Government in Formosa, which he describes with careful attention to essential details, offers a significant parallel to the educational campaign which our Government is conducting, at no great distance from Formosa and under somewhat similar conditions, in the Philippine Islands.

Very respectfully,

ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN,

Commissioner.

The Secretary of the Interior.

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# PREFACE.

With Japan and America entering the ranks of the colonizing powers, the question of colonial education becomes particularly important, especially so in view of the fact that education in both Japan and America occupies a commanding position. It is rather significant that the two great Pacific powers should have become colonizing nations within three years of each other.

It is the purpose of this monograph to set forth the results of Japan's efforts to establish an educational system in Formosa, her first colonial possession. In order that we may fully understand the nature of the problem with which she has to contend, I have attempted to describe somewhat fully the work of her predecessors in the island, the Dutch and the Chinese. Thus the monograph has naturally resolved itself into a history of education in Formosa. While I have touched upon the subject of education in both China and Japan, I have made no effort to describe conditions as they obtain in those countries. For such a description the reader is referred to Mr. Robert E. Lewis's admirable book, The Educational Conquest of the Far East.

For much of my material I have to acknowledge my indebtedness to the Rev. William Campbell's work, entitled "Formosa under the Dutch," and to the official publications of the Formosan government. I am especially indebted to Mr. Mochiji, director of education in Formosa, and to Mr. Ogawa, his very able assistant, for their extreme kindness in affording me every possible opportunity to study conditions at first hand.

JULEAN H. ARNOLD.

AMERICAN CONSULATE, Tamsui (Daitotei), Formosa.

7



# EDUCATION IN FORMOSA.

#### I.-EDUCATION UNDER THE DUTCH.

#### 1. THE DUTCH EAST INDIA COMPANY.

To Holland the island of Formosa is indebted for its first schools. In the early part of the seventeenth century, when the Dutch West India Company was establishing trading posts and appropriating to itself lands upon the American continent, the Dutch East India Company, unsuccessful in its efforts to drive the Portuguese from Macao or to secure trading privileges upon the China coast, established itself without opposition in the southern part of Formosa. This company claimed the island by virtue of an agreement with China and proposed to make it a valuable trading post. Instead of laboring to gain the friendship of twenty-five or thirty thousand Hakka Chinese residents in the island, or that of a handful of wealthy Japanese traders, already there, they wisely courted the good will of the aborigines who owned the territory upon which they settled. They began to trade with these natives and to colonize the country. They soon discovered that their influence with the aborigines could be rendered more effective and their trade relations extended by converting them to Christianity. Accordingly, in 1627 George Candidius, under appointment from the Dutch Government, joined the Dutch Company in south Formosa to engage in religious and educational work among the native tribes.

#### 2. THE INHABITANTS OF SOUTH FORMOSA.

In his account of the inhabitants, Candidius describes the natives as a savage and barbarous people, the men tall and robust and the women short and stout. The color of their skin resembled that of the East Indian. The men went about in the summer naked, while the women, upon certain occasions, exhibited no shame in going about in a similar state. Different villages often spoke different dialects and were at continual warfare one with another. The people were as a rule peacefully disposed toward foreigners and often very hospitable. They showed no desire to cultivate their fields further than was neces-

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sary to gain a meager subsistence, although their lands were extremely fertile. The women did most of the farming, while the younger men seldom or never engaged in tilling the soil, their only work consisting in hunting and fishing. The older men worked in the fields, but not in the same fields with their wives, until after their fiftieth year, nor did they live with their wives after having attained that age. Adult males, until their fiftieth year, lived in villages, separate from the women, stealing over at night to visit their wives. Although a woman married young, yet it was considered a sin for her to give birth to a child before her 37th year.

The men married after attaining the age of 21, and as a rule married but one wife, although fornication and adultery were not considered sins. According to Candidius, a village had no headman or chief, but was ruled by a set of 12 councilors, chosen from among the male members of the tribe of upward of 40 years of age. Contemporaneous records, however, point to the fact that custom in the different villages varied in this particular, for instances are cited in which villages had their chiefs and headmen. The councilors were in reality little more than police officers, their duties consisting in seeing that the customs and ceremonies of the village were properly observed and that the commands of the priestesses were respected. Theft, murder, manslaughter, and adultery were not punishable by law, but custom decreed that the offended party or his relatives might seek personal revenge by taking possession of certain property of the offender in retribution. For instance, should a man have discovered another in adultery with his wife, he was entitled to take from the offender two or three pigs.

Candidius further states that, although these aborigines were unable to read or write, yet they had a form of religion which had been handed down through successive generations. They acknowledged many gods, among which were two principal ones. Priestesses acted as interpreters for their gods and performed the sacrificial rites. These priestesses also assisted in the burial ceremonies, which were very elaborate and which lasted many days. The bodies of the departed were submitted to a slow process of toasting for a period of nine days, during which time the relatives indulged in much feasting. After three years the skeletons were buried. According to common belief, the soul after death met with either punishment or reward.

In warfare these natives were treacherous and cruel. Their weapons consisted of swords, spears, and shields. They avoided open warfare, preferring to secure by stealth or cunning as many of the heads of the enemy as possible. The securing of a head was an occasion for great rejoicing, and after the flesh was boiled off the skull was preserved as a trophy. Although the member of the tribe who could display the greatest number of these trophies was held in high esteem

by his fellow-tribesmen, yet the only mark of respect recognized by all was that to which one was entitled by virtue of seniority.

These tribes were, according to most writers, of Malay type, and undoubtedly related to tribes inhabiting the Philippines. The Dutch describe them as being superior to the Chinese with whom they came into contact, but these opinions were, without doubt, influenced by a prejudice against the Chinese resident in the island.

#### 3. BEGINNINGS OF DUTCH MISSIONARY WORK.

After Candidius had learned the language of the natives, he applied himself assiduously to the task of bringing them into touch with the doctrines of Christianity. Meanwhile helpers were sent from Holland to assist in the missionary work. All educational work undertaken by the Dutch in Formosa was done in the interests of the Dutch church. Instruction was based upon the catechism, the Lord's prayer, and certain sermons. As the natives were divided into many tribes, no two under the same chief or headman, and as they had no literature or teachers to propagate their creeds, it was deemed a comparatively easy matter to replace their religion by that of Christianity. Naturally schools became a necessity, in order that the people might learn to read and write their own language, that it might serve as a medium for the propagation of the tenets of the Christian faith.

# 4. SCHOOLS FOR THE ABORIGINES; METHODS OF INSTRUCTION.

It is recorded that a school of 70 boys was opened in the year 1635 under a Dutch instructor who endeavored to teach the natives to read and write their own language in roman letters. By the year 1645 there were schools established in seven or eight different villages. About 600 boys and girls were in attendance in these schools, committing to memory a prescribed catechism, the Lord's prayer, and other religious texts. It appears that but few were taught to write, for in a school of 80 pupils only 17 were being taught to write, in order that they might be trained as native teachers. Attendance in the schools was compulsory, although this was contrary to the wishes of the parents, who preferred that their children be permitted to work in the fields. For this reason it was often necessary to distribute food and clothing among the pupils, in order to compensate for their attendance at school. During one year 471 garments and about 385,000 pounds of rice were distributed among 500 pupils. Dutch teachers complained that the use of the ferule only tended to encourage the pupils to run away from school; in fact, in the Rev. M. Junius's recommendation that a number of native students be sent to Holland for training as clergymen, one of the reasons he assigned was that it was difficult to keep the pupils in the schools sufficiently long to make them of any value to the church, while in Holland they might be chastised without fear of their running away. Besides the subjects above mentioned, pupils were also instructed in singing. Schools for adult instruction were maintained, and attendance at church was made compulsory. The Sabbath was observed with strictness. All instruction was carried on in the native dialect, although it was proposed from time to time to introduce the Dutch language into the schools.

The school-teachers were for the most part Dutch ex-soldiers, who after teaching for a short period were elevated to the position and rank of schoolmaster. It appears that a mistake was made in elevating these soldiers to such positions, for the Formosa Consistory itself admitted that little confidence could be reposed in the Dutch schoolmasters. In the council for Formosa's report to the president and councilors of the government of India, in October, 1645, it was stated in criticism of the conduct of the ex-soldier schoolmasters that "the greater number were guilty of drunkenness, fornication, and adultery; in fact, led most scandalous lives, so much so that hardly a fourth came up to our expectations." By 1644 there were 50 trained native school-teachers, who received from the treasury of the company 1 real each a month, in addition to rations of rice which the villagers were in duty bound to contribute. It is said that the majority of these were able to read and write. In 1645 it was deemed wise to decrease the number of native schoolmasters to 17, and to advance their pay fourfold, in order that they might be free to give all of their time to their work, instead of being obliged to devote a portion of it to work in the fields.

#### 5. RULES FOR IMPARTING RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

Up to 1651 the clergy and judiciary were linked together, the latter being subservient to the former. By order of the governorgeneral and councilors in 1651 the clergymen were discharged of all civil and judicial services, in order that they might devote themselves more uninterruptedly to the conversion of the heathen; but the schoolmasters still remained under the direct control of the clergy and beyond the jurisdiction of the judicial functionaries, which fact led to considerable friction between the civil and ecclesiastical authorities, the former contending that a bad schoolmaster often found shelter and protection under the wings of the clergy, thus evading punishment. In the year 1657, by recommendation of the consistory of Batavia, the consistory in Formosa drew up a set of rules intended to establish a more concise and more uniform method of imparting religious instruction. These rules were as follows:

First. That in the school for adults and young people the following only need be learned by heart, namely, the two well-known catechisms, the smaller con-

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taining thirty-nine and the larger sixty-nine questions and answers; the Lord's Prayer; the Creed; the Ten Commandments; the prayers to be used before and after meals, as also the morning and evening prayers. In connection with this it should be observed that in no case whatsoever shall anyone be obliged to learn both catechisms by heart, but only one; adults the lesser one, as they know it only; and the younger natives the larger catechism, as they till now have learned from it and have already committed the greater part of it to memory.

Secondly. That no scholar shall be obliged to learn more than the things which have just been mentioned, and that none of them need be burdened with any explanations or expositions in connection with the larger or the lesser catechism, except it be out of school hours.

Thirdly. That all clergymen, catechists, and schoolmasters shall do what they can to promote the knowledge of saving truth by giving proper instruction from the catechism both to old and to young, not only in the churches and schools, but also in the dwellings of the natives.

#### 6. PROPOSED COLLEGE FOR TRAINING NATIVE CLERGY.

During the same year it was also proposed to establish a college for the training of a select number of native clergymen. In proposing a site for the building, one of the important considerations appears to have been the selecting a place hedged in by the junction of two rivers of "rapid current and great depth," in order that these might act as a barrier to prevent the escape of the students. It was intended to select the thirty prospective students from as many of the different villages as possible. It was desirable that they should be of good character, and possess good memories and quickness of apprehension; be between 10 and 14 years of age, well acquainted with reading and writing, and preferably from among the children of the poor. As to the plan of instruction, it was proposed that they be taught in the Formosan language in the morning and in the Dutch language in the afternoon. For the Dutch language a book written by Comenius, called the "Door or Portal to Language," was recommended. As to the internal management of the seminary, the following rules were proposed by the consistory:

- 1. That the subdirector shall have all the young people up in the morning before sunrise; see that they properly dress, wash, and comb themselves, and then arrange for morning prayers being read, all present reverently kneeling.
  - 2. That before and after the usual lesson prayers shall be said or read.
- 3. That at meals—breakfast, dinner, and supper—a blessing shall first be asked and afterwards thanks returned.
- 4. That while dinner and supper are being partaken of a chapter from the Bible shall be read aloud.
- 5. That the young people in rotation shall read a chapter during dinner and supper, and observe the same order with the prayers before and after meals and lessons.
- 6. That no young person shall be allowed to leave the seminary without the special permission of the director.
- 7. That the subdirector shall not be allowed to give more than a blow with the ferule by way of punishment in case of misbehavior.

- 8. That the young people who remain out longer than the time permitted shall be punished as the director thinks fit.
- 9. That every day two monitors shall be appointed from among the young people by turn, whose duty it will be to note those who speak any other language than Dutch during college time, or who do not behave properly, and report their names to the subdirector.
- 10. That the subdirector shall take special care in having the clothes of the children kept neat and clean, the building itself properly cleansed, and ali things looked after that may tend to the advantage and well-being of the institution and its inmates.

Although this institution never became a reality, owing to the impending conflict with the Chinese, yet these proposed regulations serve to show the Dutch methods of dealing with the native pupils after thirty years of experience.

Although thousands did "give their names to Christ," and hundreds were enrolled in the schools as a result of the labors of the Dutch missionaries and teachers, yet it appears that but few understood the meaning of the religious formulæ which they had committed to memory, and that the number who had remained in school sufficiently long to learn to write was comparatively small. The remarkably large attendance at both church and school was in response to aggressive methods and was undoubtedly inspired by fear of the Dutch authorities. But in the light of that day, the methods of the Dutch were not unusually severe.

# 7. RESULTS OF THE LABORS OF THE DUTCH.

As for results, one must be impressed by the extent of the achievements of these missionaries, especially when one considers the difficulties under which they labored. They were obliged to conquer a half dozen different Malay-Polynesian dialects. They were not free to give their entire attention to ecclesiastical and educational work, for they had come out primarily to serve the Dutch East India Company. company, owing to lack of funds and scarcity of men, pressed them into service in civil and judicial capacities in addition to their other duties. As soon as the Dutch missionaries and teachers had learned the language and customs of the natives, they became especially useful to the company as collectors of taxes, interpreters, judicial functionaries, and even as tradesmen. Furthermore, they were obliged to serve as pastors to the Dutch colony. It appears that the Dutch company spent something like 20,000 guilders a year on missionary and educational work, and as they zealously guarded their own interests, they made religion and trade go hand in hand, the one serving the other. Furthermore, the clergy were often at the mercy of the caprices of the civil authorities, for the proposals of the consistory were subject to rejection by the Formosan council. There were also external causes which tended to interfere with the labors of the missionaries, principal among which was the opposition offered by the Japanese resident in the island.

In spite of these difficulties and in spite of their own shortcomings, their thirty-five years' labors among the natives had a beneficent They found the people ignorant of letters and addicted to many evil practices, and they left them a written language and improved social customs. But the rapid influx of Chinese into the island, following the departure of the Dutch, gradually obliterated many of the good effects of the Dutch influence. According to Rev. William Campbell, one of the leading present-day authorities upon matters pertaining to the descendants of these tribes, the practice of abortion appears to have died out entirely. "As to religion, indications were found among several tribes of a belief in evil spirits, and in one supreme spiritual father, but no stated rites seem to be observed." The Reverend Campbell further states that about twentyfive years ago he was told by a Chinese friend in Kagi city of an aboriginal tribe in the east which practiced a kind of baptism of infant children, and the report appeared to him so trustworthy and circumstantial that he was led to conclude that this must be some genuine survival of the missionary work of two hundred and twenty years ago. Of equal interest is the fact, as cited by the same authority, that numerous manuscripts in romanized Formosan lately found in the island are dated about the beginning of the nineteenth century, thus proving that the art of reading and writing was handed down through successive generations by the people themselves. Mr. Ogawa, acting superintendent of education for Formosa, states that there exist to-day descendants of these tribes who still employ the roman characters in writing.

# II.-EDUCATION UNDER THE CHINESE.

## 1. KOXINGA AND HIS SUCCESSOR.

With the downfall of the Ming dynasty in China, a large influx of Ming loyalists into Formosa made possible the passing of the island into the hands of the famous Chinese pirate chieftain, Koxinga, who had scarcely established himself as ruler of Formosa when he died. It is recorded of Cheng Ching, his son and successor, that he ordered schools to be established in every district throughout the island. Examinations for civil positions were part of Cheng Ching's educational programme. As he ruled for but a few years, it is not to be supposed that his educational measures were effectively carried out.

2. CONDITIONS IN FORMOSA WHEN IT BECAME A CHINESE POSSESSION.

When in 1683 China took possession of Formosa, instead of setting up a colonial government she made it an integral part of the Chinese

Empire, and for upward of two centuries governed it as a prefecture of Fukien Province. The influx of Chinese into the island was so rapid that by the middle of the eighteenth century the Chinese population was estimated at more than 1,500,000. This population was made up of discordant elements. The first Chinese to settle in the island were the Hakkas, a courageous and industrious people. They were treated in China as barbarians, hence a number of them had sought refuge in Formosa before the Dutch came to the island. The Fukienese Chinese, who since the beginning of the eighteenth century had made up the bulk of the island's Chinese population, were never peacefully disposed toward the Hakkas. The so-called Ming lovalists, whom the establishment of the Manchu dynasty had driven from the coast of South China to Formosa, never seemed to miss an opportunity to assist in setting up an independent government in the island. Bands of brigands and pirates infested the country during the whole of the Chinese régime. The official classes in the coast towns of China found Formosa a splendid dumping ground for undesirables. The savage tribes inhabiting more than one-half of the island had always to be taken into account. Some of the peaceful lowland tribes, including a number of those who had come under the influence of the Dutch, were gradually absorbed by the Chinese and adopted Chinese customs. But the greater portion of the savage population never, during the whole of the Chinese occupation, relinquished control of the entire eastern half of the island, where they remained a constant menace to the peaceful exploitation of the lands in proximity to their territory. That the Chinese rule had not succeeded in reconciling these discordant elements or in putting down brigandage or piracy, is evidenced by an almost unbroken series of insurrections, rebellions, interclan feuds, and depredations of bands of brigands and pirates during the whole of the Chinese régime.

In the face of these disturbing elements it is not to be expected that much was done in the way of establishing schools and affording the masses opportunities for education. In fact, up to the time that Formosa was made a separate province and placed under the rule of the progressive governor, Liu Ming Chuan, in 1885, the educational administration on the island, as well as the general civil administration, was indeed lax.

The educational problem with which the Chinese administration had to contend naturally divides itself under two heads, namely, (1) education of the Chinese, and (2) education of the aborigines.

#### 3. EDUCATION OF THE CHINESE.

#### (a) OBJECT OF EDUCATION.

The object of education in Formosa, as in China, was to prepare candidates for imperial examinations. As these examinations always

presupposed a knowledge of the Chinese classics and Chinese ancient history, the government and private schools shaped their courses accordingly.

# (b) SYSTEM OF CONTBOL.

The Chinese system placed education under the control of the provincial authorities. In making Formosa a prefecture of Fukien Province the question of furnishing educational facilities to the Chinese was greatly simplified. Local conditions naturally made certain departures from the regular system obtaining in Fukien Province proper inevitable. Being divided from the mainland by an intervening channel 100 to 200 miles in width, it was found to be inconvenient to place the control of educational matters in the island with the governor of Fukien, who was ex officio director of education for his province. At first the taotai of Amov was made ex officio director of education. In 1728 the inspector of the administration of the island of Formosa added to his other duties that of director of education, but in 1752 the office passed to the control of the taotai of Tainan (Formosa). In 1875 the governor of Fukien established the custom of spending a portion of the spring and autumn of each year in the island, and from that time the duties of director of education devolved upon him.

The system of government education, if it might be called a system, included prefectural, district, and elementary schools. In proportion to the population these were few indeed, and the greater portion of the work done remained for the private school. The efficiency of the system, judged from a Chinese view point, depended upon the character of the local administration. The history of the island, while a prefecture of Fukien Province, shows little evidence of enlightened and public-spirited service on the part of the local officials.

#### (c) ESTABLISHMENT OF PREFECTURAL AND DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

In 1686 the Taiwan-fu Prefectural School, afterwards known as the "Head School of Formosa," was opened, the governor having repaired for that purpose the old district school established by Cheng Ching. This building was in reality a Confucian temple, with two rooms set aside for school purposes. The number of students was limited to 20, and the teacher's salary fixed at 45 taels per year. About the same time there were established two district schools, one in the city of Tainan and the other at Kyuzo (about 8 miles northwest of the present Hozan). The number of students allowed in these two schools was 10 and 15, respectively. The prefectural and district

<sup>\*</sup>For a detailed list of schools established during the Chinese régime, see Table 1, page 27. We are not to suppose that all of the schools enumerated in this list were maintained until the coming of the Japanese, for local disturbances were of too frequent occurrence to make such probable.



schools were supported by the house tax and by revenues from adjoining lands belonging to the schools. Repairs and building improvements were met from time to time by subscriptions from official and private sources.

The duties of the teachers were described as follows:

- 1. To have control of the Temple of Sages connected with the school.
  - 2. Instruction, examination, and promotion of pupils.
  - 3. Inspection of private schools.

In 1725, after a severe rebellion had been put down, Governor Lu Chow issued a proclamation recommending the establishment of free schools throughout the island, contending that they would be of great assistance in teaching the people obedience and in exerting a beneficent influence in checking tendencies to rebellion. Although no substantial improvement resulted from the governor's well-intentioned proclamation, yet its issuance shows a recognition of the possibilities of a general education.

# (d) THE IMPERIAL EXAMINATIONS.

Probably a still better token of the recognition of the efficacy of learning is shown in the attitude of the authorities in securing for the island proper recognition in the imperial examinations. As a prefecture of Fukien Province, Formosa was entitled to the preliminary examination which was held by the provincial literary chancellor once each year. The successful candidates were entitled to appear for the triennial examination at the provincial capital, Foochow, where, owing to the fact that but a limited number of degrees were to be conferred, the few candidates from Formosa stood a very poor chance among the vast number from all over Fukien Province proper. In 1688 the commander of the army in Formosa, by representations to the Throne, secured for the island the opening of a special list of candidates, whereby one degree was allowed, but in 1692 this special favor was withdrawn. In 1730, as a result of representations from the inspection of education, an imperial decree provided a special list of candidates for the island and one degree. Six years later the number was increased to two. In 1808 the Emperor Chia Cheng conferred upon the residents of Formosa a special favor by extending the number of degrees to three. This favor was the result of overtures made by the governor after a tour of inspection throughout the island, in which he represented that it was due to the patriotic motives of the rich residents of the plains that a volunteer force was raised in Formosa capable of putting down the piratical bands which up to that time had ravaged the coast towns. In all probability the rich merchants were inspired by motives of self-protection rather than patriotism; but this was an easy method of rewarding them for their services, as the favored sons of these rich residents might thus rise to positions of influence and power. In 1829 the Emperor Tao Kuang, upon a similar pretext, increased the the number of degrees to four. Between the years 1874 and 1894 nine Formosan students received the third degree in the imperial examinations in Peking.

The Emperor Tao Kuang had undoubtedly been greatly impressed by the lawlessness existing in Formosa, for during his reign he ordered that the Sacred Edict (the sixteen moral maxims of the Emperor Kang Hsi) be read upon the 1st and 15th days of each month throughout the towns and the country districts of the island, instead of being read simply in the larger cities, as formerly obtained. He hoped thereby to instill in the minds of the inhabitants obedience and reverence for learning.

It was not until the year 1875 that China gave to Formosa any serious consideration. From that time the governor of Fukien was ordered to reside in the island a certain portion of each year, that he might render to the island more effective service. By 1884 matters in Formosa assumed sufficient importance to entitle the island to a separate provincial administration, and upon Liu Ming Chuan was conferred the honor of being the first governor of Formosa.

# (e) WORK OF GOVERNOR LIU MING CHUAN.

During the entire history of the Chinese administration in Formosa all that is worthy of the name of education was the work of one man, namely, the enlightened Governor Liu Ming Chuan. In 1885 this progressive official, quite in advance of his colleagues in similar posts in China, inaugurated a system of reforms which bade fair to place Formosa in advance of China proper in administrative measures. Among his reforms was the establishment in Taihoku; the capital city, of a school for western learning. An Englishman, a Dane, and a Chinaman educated abroad were retained as teachers. and modern educational methods substituted for the old fossilized system of instruction. As the wholesome effect of the administration of one progressive official in China is often obliterated by the reactionary measures of a nonprogressive successor, so in this case the good beginnings made by Governor Liu Ming Chuan toward instituting modern education in Formosa came to naught through the indifference of his successor a few years later.

#### (f) PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

As the public and prefectural schools did very little for education, it was the private school upon which in Formosa, as well as in China proper, education really depended. A glance at the list of so-called government schools (Table 1) and their student enrollments will

readily convince one that these schools did not pretend to reach the masses. Accurate statistics as to the number of private schools and the student enrollment in such schools during any period of the Chinese régime are unobtainable. It is to be presumed that there was in Formosa a less proportionate number of children receiving an education than in China proper.

Private schools in Formosa, as in China, were opened in the following ways: (1) Several families or members of a community combined, rented quarters, and hired a teacher; (2) individuals or societies, philanthropically disposed, hired a teacher and opened a school; (3) wealthy individuals retained tutors for their children; (4) a scholar established himself in a village and received pupils for such fees as their families could afford to pay. The private schools aimed either to give a knowledge of reading and writing the characters or to prepare pupils as candidates for the government examinations. Those who attended for the first purpose studied from two to eight years, while those who were destined to prepare for the examinations remained in school for upward of ten years. The course of study included reading from the Chinese classics and the Four Books, writing Chinese characters, composition, and versification.

The pupils had no definite school hours, it being understood that the services of the teacher were to be devoted to teaching from sunrise until sunset. Those retaining a teacher seemed to be bent upon securing as much of his time in actual schoolroom work as the light of day would permit, while those sending children to be instructed were equally inconsiderate in the demands made upon these children. A pupil's daily schedule was something after the following manner:

6 to 7 a. m. Recitation (recite lesson of previous day).

7 to 8.30. Breakfast at home.

8.30 to 10. Read and recite portions of classics while teacher paraphrases.

10 to 12. Writing.

12 to 1.30 p. m. Luncheon at home.

1.30 to 3. Writing.

3 to 4 or 5. Reading.

The more advanced pupils worked by themselves, the teacher acting merely as guide.

The ordinary private school provided for 10 to 20 pupils and was managed by one teacher. There were no classes, each pupil constituting a class by himself. The class room served also as the teacher's private quarters and he was responsible for its upkeep. The room was provided with a tablet to Confucius or an image which was placed at the front. Desks and chairs were furnished by the pupils, who took them away at their departure. The private schools were supported by entrance fees, tuition fees, presents on festival days,

and presents in kind. The entrance fee ranged from 5 cents to 50 cents and was sent to the teacher as a present. The tuition fee was no fixed amount, but varied according to the ability of the parents to pay. This fee increased with the number of years' attendance of the pupil. Ordinarily the fee was about 50 cents a year for new pupils and 75 cents for more advanced students. The presents made upon the four festival occasions were about equal in amount to the entrance present. When the tuition fees were not paid in full, it was the custom to make presents in kind, consisting of vegetables, charcoal, peanut oil, and tea. Thus the income of the private teacher depended upon the number of his pupils and the financial status of their parents. This income ranged from \$15 or \$20 to \$100 a year.

The greater portion of the pupils who attended the private schools dropped their schooling after two or three years of study, the parents being contented if their children had gained a superficial knowledge of the Chinese characters, as this was, in reality, rather serviceable. One of the features of the Chinese school which brought it into favor with the parents was the fact that each pupil was a class unto himself; hence the parents were privileged to utilize the services of their children whenever they wished, as taking them out of school did not interfere with the work of the other pupils. In fact, so long as the teacher received the pupil's tuition fee he was not particularly anxious to encourage regular attendance at school.

It is worthy of note here that neither the public nor private schools made any provision for female education, while the private schools were established only for the Chinese, the savages being entirely dependent upon the government schools especially provided for them.

#### 4. EDUCATION OF THE ABORIGINES.

# (a) FIRST ATTEMPTS.

A Ming loyalist, Chen Lao Wen, came to Formosa in 1662 to avoid living in China under a Manchu dynasty. For twenty years he lived with the Mekawan savage tribe and taught their children to read and write Chinese, also administering Chinese medical treatment to the elders of the tribe.

It was not until thirty-four years later, 1696, that the Chinese administration in Formosa took up the work of educating the savages. We have already noted the remarkable work done by the Dutch missionaries toward Ghristianizing the aborigines of southern Formosa. Up to the year 1875 the educational work of the Chinese among the savages was confined to those tribes whose ancestors had been under Dutch influence. In 1696 there was established in the vicinity of Taiwan City by the Taiwan prefect a school for savages.

There was one teacher appointed to this school, and the Three Character Classic and the Four Books were introduced as text-books. The course of study was similar to that pursued in the Chinese private schools—that is, reading and writing the Chinese characters was the main consideration. Food and books were supplied free to the pupils to encourage their remaining in school, and they were provided with calendars that they might become familiar with the Chinese New Year and feast days. In 1728 it was recorded that the condition of the savage children who were brought under the influence of this school had greatly improved by virtue of their Chinese acquisitions.

# (b) SCHOOLS ESTABLISHED IN 1735.

It was not until the year 1735 that any serious attempts were made to educate any number of savage children. In that year, according to record, about 50 schools were opened among tribes whose ancestors had a century before received instruction from the Dutch. Many of the children, even at that date, had been taught by their parents to write their own language in roman characters. These children naturally found it difficult to familiarize themselves with the Chinese characters, and often used the roman letters to aid them in memorizing the pronunciation. The authorities, fearing that the use of the roman letters might militate against the acquirement of Chinese, actually prohibited their use.

A Chinese scholar was appointed for each of the 50 schools. Trained teachers were unknown under the Chinese system, as it was presumed that any one with the attainments of a scholar was able to impart his knowledge to others. The course of study prescribed for these schools was quite similar to that which obtained among the Chinese. The assistant teacher in the Taiwan Prefectural School was made inspector of savage schools, and it was his duty to report each season upon the progress of savage education. At the end of the year 1736, this inspector reported that "each savage child in these schools is able to read the Four Books and simple poems without any provincialisms, and their writing is proper." This report was undoubtedly too sweeping in its generalizations, yet it is evident that the educational work among the savage children at that time made far more progress than at any other period during the whole of the Chinese régime, with the possible exception of that under Governor Liu Ming Chuan, one hundred and fifty years later. The remarkable progress of savage education in the early half of the eighteenth century was undoubtedly due to the fact that the savage tribes with which the Chinese came into contact were at that time more peacefully disposed toward them than at any subsequent period. The children had voluntarily adopted the Chinese dress and wore the queue.

Like many things Chinese, this educational work among the savage tribes, so well begun in 1735, was destined through the lack of proper attention to deteriorate and lapse. By 1751, its efficiency had been reduced to such an extent that when the Kamaran tribe, near Gilan, north Formosa, came under Chinese influence that year, no efforts were made to establish schools among them. From 1736 to 1875, there appears to have been little or nothing done to extend the education of the savage tribes. Many of the Pepohuans (peaceful savages) had, during this time, through continuous intercourse with the Chinese, gradually become "Chinesed," adopting the Chinese dress, manners, and language. The savage schools in south Formosa lapsed.

# (c) EDUCATIONAL WORK AMONG THE TRIBES IN THE EAST AND SOUTH.

In 1875 when the opening up of the southern and southeastern portions of Taito Prefecture was undertaken, a plan for the education of the savages of this district was drawn up. A special text-book, Proverbs for the Instruction of Savages, was compiled, and, after inspection by the viceroy of the Liang Min Provinces and the governor of Fukien, adopted. The establishment of schools to carry out this plan marks the first attempt upon the part of the Chinese to educate the "untamed" tribes. The policy of the Chinese administration up to that time had been to regard the eastern half of the island, the portion inhabited by the untamed savage tribes, as beyond the administrative area, and to prohibit their own people from crossing the border line separating the savage territory from the rest of the island. Taito Prefecture extended along the greater portion of the east coast, and contained about 51,000 savages, or one-half of the entire savage population. The tribes in the southern and southeastern parts of the prefecture belonged to the nonheadhunter groups, and thus were less dangerous than those farther north. It was planned to establish in this district 44 schools to afford proper facilities for the instruction of these savages, but only 7 were actually opened, 1 each at Pian, Baranyosha, Bakyseki, Kyaku, Suibi, Bashisho, and Karenko. These schools aimed to teach reading and writing. The Proverbs for the Instruction of Savages was adopted as a text-book for reading. After two years of instruction the majority of the pupils attending these schools were, according to report, able to understand and speak Formosan Chinese. Owing to an increasing lack of interest on the part of both teachers and pupils, and to a too frequent recourse to the infliction of corporal punishment, the attendance in these schools gradually dwindled, and by 1886 they existed in name only.

In 1876 the savage district in Koshun, the southernmost district in the island, was opened, and Chinese were induced by grants of funds to settle therein for agricultural purposes. District schools were opened here, and for the first time in the history of the island Chinese and savage children were educated together. Schools were established as follows:

	Attendance.		
Location of school.	Chinese.	Savages	
Bun Ri Ho	0	r	
Sha Ma Ri Rin ran Korin	1 0	1	
Shijukei			
Total	11	5	

For each savage child in attendance 500 cash a a month were allowed for food and stationery. The course of study was similar to that prescribed for the Taito schools, and the final results were also much the same, for by 1891 the attendance had dwindled to 13.

# (d) SAVAGE EDUCATION UNDER GOVERNOR MING CHUAN.

In 1886, shortly after Formosa had become a separate province of the Chinese Empire, the enlightened governor, Liu Ming Chuan, established a department for the control of the training of savages and the cultivation of their territory. Of particular interest is the school which this department established among the Namakama tribe of the Tsou group in Nanto Prefecture. This school was located at the beginning of a road which had been opened in this prefecture. through the savage country to the east coast, this being the only road that was ever opened through the savage territory in central Formosa. This school was supposed to be the forerunner of others to be built along the road directly to the east coast, and it was hoped by running this line of schools through the heart of the savage territory that the tribes in that region would gradually be brought under Chinese influence. The idea was without doubt an excellent one and worthy the progressive attitude of the enlightened governor. But Chinese educational methods were not adapted to an alien and savage race, and when the Cantonese teacher in charge of the school attempted to instill into the minds of his pupils a respect for Chinese learning by free use of the rod, he soon found himself obliged to resign because of the nonattendance of his pupils.

In the Gilan district (northeast Formosa) a number of the Kiloh tribe of the Atayal group of head-hunters were, in 1889, induced by the Chinese authorities to take up their abode in the vicinity of Getsuibi Hill, where opportunities for education and training could be accorded them. Owing to the prevalence of disease among this tribe in their new location, they became superstitious and returned to their old home. A second worthy project thus ended in failure.

Governor Liu's most elaborate scheme for the education and civilization of the savages was contained in a proposition to found in Taihoku City a school for the instruction of the children of the head men of the various savage tribes. It was proposed to select the more intelligent children of the savage chieftains and educate them in the Chinese language and in the Chinese manners and customs; in a word, to mold them into Chinese. After having accomplished this, they were to be returned to their respective tribes, and in course of time succeed their fathers as head men, when their influence would extend throughout the tribes and result in civilizing, to some extent at least. their fellow tribesmen. This scheme also involved the training of a certain number of savages as Chinese interpreters to take the places of the incompetent Chinese occupying those positions. Undoubtedly the latter idea was a step in the right direction, for the Chinese who had acquired a sufficient knowledge of the savage dialects to act as interpreters were a notoriously corrupt class, and used their positions to extort from the savages as much as possible.

According to these proposals, a school was opened in Taihoku in March, 1888, with 20 pupils selected from among the sons of the head men of the various tribes of the Atayal group in North Formosa. A year later 10 more pupils were added to this number. The teaching staff in this school consisted of one head teacher, who received a salary of \$15 a month, and three assistants, each of whom received \$6 a month. Added to this staff there was one interpreter. dents ranged from 10 to 17 years of age. Their course of study was quite similar to that of the ordinary private school, and included the following subjects: Chinese reading and writing; conversational lessons in the native dialect, as well as in Mandarin, the former in order that they might not forget their own language; versification and composition, for the advanced pupils. The books used were the Three Character Classic, the Four Books, and the Five Ceremonial The children were all obliged to dress in Chinese clothes. wear Chinese hats, shoes, and queues, and eat Chinese food. said that they did not take kindly to the wearing of the queue. teachers were obliged to instruct them in Chinese manners and customs, and to escort them every three days on journeys about the city in order that they might become familiar with the habits and customs of the Chinese people. The pupils were allowed 4 cents a day for food and 5 cents a month for stationery. Prizes not exceeding in amount 15 cents a month were given for meritorious work. quarters were provided for the pupils and a cook and coolie attended them. In 1891 the first graduates were sent out from the school. During the same year Governor Liu resigned his post, and his successor, not in sympathy with his progressive measures, refused to support the school, and the pupils were obliged to return to their savage homes, where they discarded their Chinese dress, queues, and 48813-08-4

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manners, and proceeded promptly to forget all that had been taught them.

Although Governor Liu's experiment in winning the savage tribes to Chinese influence deserves naught but words of praise for the spirit in which it was undertaken and for the thorough manner in which it was carried out, especially when we contrast this work with the shabby attempts of his predecessors toward bringing a savage population under Chinese control, vet it must be conceded that he was making a dreadful mistake in presuming to saddle upon these savage children an education and training which was out of all harmony with their native surroundings and could scarcely have had any other effect than to alienate them from the members of their respective The entire educational system of the Chinese was based upon the imperial examinations for its objective point. Take away the objective point and the system has little or nothing to recommend it. This is doubly apparent when an attempt it made to fit the system to an alien people. Governor Liu is hardly to be blamed for this. During his time China had not yet come to recognize the futility of her antiquated methods of education.

#### 5. SUMMARY OF EDUCATION UNDER THE CHINESE.

By way of summary, we may say for the Chinese educational administration in Formosa that, while it appears that those in authority generally recognized the fact that education might do much to inculcate in the minds and hearts of the people obedience and respect for learning, there was a universal mistaking of instruction for education. This fact was as true in China as in Formosa, hence it carried with it no distinguishing traits by which we may contrast education under the Chinese in Formosa with that under the Chinese in China. But there did exist in Formosa conditions which militated against progress in educational work of any sort. The discordant elements, the local disturbances, the constant presence of undesirable characters, and the political isolation from China proper, have all been touched upon as forces combining to make unfavorable conditions for a strong administration in educational matters and need no further comment here.

The only thing which seems to have kept the spark of educational effort burning in Formosa during the whole of the two centuries of Chinese rule was the Government imperial examinations, which nominally offered much, but in reality offered little or nothing, although they did result in impressing upon the minds of the masses a sense of the exalted position of the scholar, and undoubtedly kept private education at a higher standard than would have obtained otherwise.

The name of Governor Liu Ming Chuan might well be engraven upon tablets of stone in commemoration of his work in the cause of

education in Formosa, when we contrast his work with that done by his fellow-countrymen. His attempts at introducing into Formosa western schools and western education at a time when the Chinese Empire had manifested but a spasmodic sympathy toward institutions of western learning will always mark him as one of China's more enlightened leaders, especially when it is considered that his progressive measures were in reality opposed by those upon whom he had to depend for their execution. His efforts toward solving the savage problem by educating the sons of tribal head men in Chinese manners and customs and molding them into a Chinese people that they might return to their tribes and in turn civilize them, are deserving of commendation for their sincerity of purpose. Although he erred in misjudging the adaptability of the Chinese civilization of his day to an alien and savage race, yet the fact remains that he did more toward opening up the savage territory and bringing the savages into closer communication with the Chinese than any of his predecessors.

TABLE 1.—Public schools established during the Chinese régime.

Location.	Year estab- lished.	Pupils.	Teachers.	How supported.
l. Tainan	1686	20	2	Subscriptions and property belonging
2. Tainan	1686	10	2	Do.
3. Anping		15	2	
4. Tainan	1705	24	2	House tax and school property.
				Do.
5. Kagi		10	2	Local revenues and properties belong ing to school.
6. Ensuiko	1708	Unknown.	1	Do.
7. Tainan	. 1721	94	2	Contributions.
8. Tainan	1727	Unknown.	j 2	Government.
9. Shoka	1727	15	2	Do.
0. Shoka	1746	Unknown.	l ī	Properties of school,
1. Gilan	1753	17	l î	Do.
2. Toroku	1754	Unknown.	l i	Do.
2. IUIUKU	1704			
3. Hozan	. 1755	Not fixed.	2	Do.
4. Kagi	. 1760	Unknown.	1	Do.
5. l'escadores	1	Unknown.	2	Properties of school, contributions, and subsidy from district office.
6. Shinchiku	. 1782	Unknown.	2	Properties of school.
7. Kagi	. 1821-51	Unknown.	1	Do.
8. Shinchiku	1825	10	1 . 2	Unknown.
9. Banka		Unknown.	l i	Government.
0. Hagi	1868	Unknown.	l ī	Properties of school.
1. Banka	1880	0	l î	Government.
2. Taihoku	1881	20	2	Do.
3. Taihoku		Unknown.	2	
		Unknown.	2	Properties of school.
4. Horisha	. a 1884	<u></u>		1
5. Shinshin	. 1883	Unknown.	Unknown.	_
6. Tainan		80	2	Do.
7. Taihoku	. 1887		2 foreigners and sev- eral Chi- nese.	Government.
8. Bioritsu	. 1888	Unknown.	пеже.	Unknown.
9. Taichu	1890	Unknown.		
o Taichu	1000		Unknown.	Partly by Government.
0. Taichu	. 1890	20	2	Unknown.
1. Taitotei		Unknown.	1 (a Dane).	Government.
Z. Taihoku	. 1894	Unknown.	Unknown.	Unknown.
8. Kelung	. 1894	Unknown.	Unknown.	From certain tax funds.

a School not completed.

Note.—Nos. 1, 2, 5, 9, 18, and 21 are district schools. No. 27 is the school for western learning. No. 31 is a school designed for training telegraph operators.

TABLE 2.—Private and quasi-public schools established during the Chinese régime.

District.		Private schools.	Quasi- public schools.	Total.
nping (Tainan)	,			
Iozan		226	6	. 2
agi		8	i	_
escadores	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	2	2	1
aiwan (Taichu)		3	1	!
ho <b>ka</b>	<b></b>	12	8	
oroku			2	1
Bioritsu			b 26	1
			0 20	•
amsulhinchiku			8	!
Celung		i		
	•••••			
Total		1		1 1

· For savages.

\* Estimated, 1876.

TABLE 3.—Schools for savages established by the Chinese.

Date of estab- lish- ment.	Location.	Tribe or group.	Teach-	Subjects taught.	Text-books used.
1682		Mekawam	1	Reading and writ-	Chinese classics.
1696	South Formosa (Tainan and Hozan).	Same as came un- der influence of Dutch.	1	до	Do.
1785	Shora, Kagi, Ensui- ko, Koroku, Shin- chichu.	do	50	do	The Four Books and simple poems.
1875	Traito Prefecture, along east coast.	Amis, Paiwan	7	do	Proverbs for in- struction of sav-
1876 1887 1888	Koshun Nanto Gilan Taihoku city	Kamakama Keiloh (Atayal)	1	dododododo	Do.  Do.  Do.
			-   	position, and conversation.	

Notes.—The school established in 1862 was a private institution, all others being

OVERS.—The school established in 1000 was proposed for the Color of the Koshun schools.

As a rule there was but one teacher to a school.

The student enrollments in the above schools are for the most part unknown; however, in the case of the Koshun schools there were 61 pupils enrolled; in the Nanto school, 13 enrolled; in the Taihoku city school, 30 enrolled.

#### III.-EDUCATION UNDER THE JAPANESE.

#### 1. STATUS OF EDUCATION IN JAPAN.

When Japan in 1895 took possession of the island of Formosa 65.4 per cent of her children of school age were under instruction. national school system, established in 1870, had by the year 1895 succeeded in enrolling so great a proportion of her children. The Emperor's decree of 1871, "It is intended that henceforth education shall be so diffused that there may not be a village with an ignorant family nor a family with an ignorant member," is in Japan well on the way to realization, for returns for the year 1906 show 97 per cent of the boys and 91 per cent of the girls of school age under instruction. We are now to note the extent to which this decree is to be interpreted as embracing her first colonial possession.

# 2. CONDITIONS IN FORMOSA.

In June, 1895, when Japan took formal possession of Formosa, she found conditions in the island distinctly unfavorable to an immediate peaceful occupation. At that time the native (Chinese) population numbered about 2,600,000. There were also 100,000 aborigines, who occupied the mountainous eastern half of the island. As mentioned in the previous section, the Chinese had never succeeded during the two centuries of their occupation in effectively pacifying the island. When the Japanese made an effort to take possession they were met on all sides by armed opposition, and were obliged to carry on actual warfare against a rebel population.

#### 3. ESTABLISHMENT OF AN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM.

Within six weeks from the date of the formal cession of Formosa to Japan, and three months before the occupation of the island had been completed, the department of education for Formosa was established at Shirin, a small town in the vicinity of the capital city and an old center of learning under the Chinese régime. A few days later a language school for the training of teachers was opened under the instruction of the educational staff, and 20 native Chinese were enrolled as students. After three months' study, the progress made by these students had been so rapid as to warrant their being sent out as teachers in the elementary schools. In January, 1896, Shirin was attacked by rebels, six Japanese on the educational staff were killed, and the records and books of the department of education destroyed. Temporary headquarters for the department were established in Tokyo, and in March of the same year moved back to Shirin. The language school was again opened. Naturally the greatest difficulty with which the educational authorities had at first to contend was the lack of sufficient educated Japanese speaking Chinese and Chinese speaking Japanese to carry on the work of teaching a people who spoke but Chinese. On the 13th of April, 1896, Mr. Izawa, director of education for Formosa, brought from Japan 45 teachers of elementary schools and placed them in the Shirin training school, from which, after a special course of three months, they were sent out as teachers in the native schools. Simultaneously with the training of these Japanese teachers in Shirin, a number of educated natives had been sent to Tokyo for the study of Japanese.

In April, 1896, when the civil administration superseded the military rule, the department of education was transferred to the

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offices of the civil administration in Taihoku City. Until July, 1898. the entire educational work in the island was under the direct control and supervision of the Formosan government, and all expenditures were met from the government funds. From that time forth it was decided that the expenses of the public schools should be borne by local taxes, and that such schools should only be established in those districts in which provision was first made for their support. This rule applied only to the public schools; that is, the elementary schools for the natives (Chinese). As we shall see later, special provision is made for elementary schools for the Japanese and for secondary schools. Before July, 1898, schools had been established in 15 districts, as follows: Kelung, Tamsui, Taihoku, Shinchiku, Bioritsu, Taichu, Horisha, Rokko, Unrin, Kagi, Tainan, Hozan, Koshum, Taito, and the Pescadores. In these schools there were enrolled 1,606 pupils under 72 teachers; 65 of the latter were Japanese. The Japanese language had been made the principal subject of study, for the idea of assimilating the native population was the predominant idea in educational work up to that time.

It might thus be said that the preliminary work in establishing a school system required three years. The system as established in July, 1898, is, with but a few subsequent alterations, the same as that now in vogue. The position which the administration of educational affairs occupies in the civil administration is set forth in the following plan:

The governor-general nominally occupies a position in educational administration analogous to that of the minister of education in Japan. In reality, however, he delegates the greater portion of his functions in this field to the educational section of the bureau of general affairs of the civil administration. The educational section has, however, no jurisdiction, delegated or otherwise, over the medical school, the industrial sugar school, or the agricultural schools, special provision being made for these institutions. The educational system provides three distinct classes of public schools one for the education of the natives (Chinese), one for the Japanese. and one for the aborigines. That for the education of the natives includes local elementary schools and government secondary and special schools; that for the education of the Japanese includes government elementary, secondary, and special schools; that for the education of the aborigines local elementary schools only. Besidethe schools provided for by this system, there exist also a number of private schools. The maintenance of all government schools is provided for in each annual budget of the civil administration of the island, while that of all local schools is defrayed by the local districts.

#### 4. CENSUS RETURNS HAVING TO DO WITH EDUCATION.

According to the census returns for the year 1905 the population in the island was as follows:

Nationality.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Natives (Chinese) Japanese Aborigines	32,064	1, 357, 564 21, 304 55, 872	2, 915, 984 53, 368 113, 195
Total	1,647,807	1, 434, 740	3,082,547

The returns for the children of school age were as follows:

Nationality.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Natives. Japanese Aborigines	2 079	266, 915 1, 749	588, 786 3, 828 a 17, 000
Total			609, 614

a Approximately.

The number of children of school age under elementary instruction during the year 1906 was as follows:

	Public schools.			Private schools.			Public and
Nationality.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.	private (both sexes.)
Natives (Chinese)	1.684	3, 961 1, 601 92	31, 823 3, 285 1, 088	19, 584 281	831	19, 915 281	51, 738 3, 566 1, 088
Total	30, 536	5,654	36, 190	19,865	831	20, 196	56, 392

Thus 5.5 per cent of the native (Chinese) children of school age were during the year 1905 enrolled in public elementary schools, and 3.4 per cent in private schools, or about 9 per cent under instruction. Of the Japanese children of school age, 86 per cent were in Government elementary schools and 7 per cent in private schools, or 93 per cent under instruction. Of the children of the aborigines, about 6 per cent were under instruction during that year.

# 5. SCHOOLS FOR NATIVES.

The term "native" is applied to the Chinese population. As the natives represent about 95 per cent of the island's total population, the question of their education is of prime importance. The system of native public schools comprises local schools for elementary education, and Government schools for advanced instruction. In addition to these there are a number of private schools.

# (a) ELEMENTARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Administration, establishment, and maintenance.—For administrative purposes the island of Formosa is divided into twenty prefectures. The public schools are under the control of the local prefects, subject to instructions from the governor-general. Each prefect appoints a superintendent of education for his respective prefecture. As no administrative positions under the Formosa government can be held by natives, both the prefect and the superintendent of education must be Japanese. For each school in his prefecture the prefect appoints an educational committee, consisting of not less than three nor more than nine members, chosen from among the influential natives resident in the district in which the school is located. It is the duty of this committee to assist the prefect and the superintendent of education in matters pertaining to the school, and, when called upon to do so, to give its opinion upon matters relating to the attendance and selection of pupils, equipment of the school, and estimates for the school budget. This committee also collects school moneys and assists in financing the school.

The establishment, consolidation, and abolition of public schools are made by application from the natives resident in the district concerned, through the prefect to the governor-general. In the application for the establishment of a public school, the amount subscribed by the property holders must be stated. This amount must be equivalent to nine-tenths of the cost of establishing the proposed school before the petition may be granted. The prefect reports to the governor-general the circumstances and conditions surrounding the support of a school in the district concerned, and recommends certain action. The governor-general is at liberty to reject or accept the application. Generally speaking, no school is established unless an enrollment of at least 60 pupils can be guaranteed.

The expenses for the maintenance of public schools are met from the revenues accruing from certain lands belonging to the schools, from contributions, tuition fees, and special tax levies. Tax levies are assessed against the property owners of the district in which any school is located at a rate fixed by the governor-general. This rate varies in different districts. In the case of the Banka public school the Government pays the teachers' salaries and traveling expenses, while in all other cases these items are met from the local revenues. Tuition fees are assessed at a rate not less than 25 cents or more than \$1 a year a pupil, the amount in each district being determined by the local prefect. Nonresidents may be assessed an extra fee. The items of expenditure for education for the year 1906 are given on page 62.

<sup>•</sup> During the Chinese régime, the expenses for the maintenance of public schools were met in a great measure from the revenues of farm lands belonging to the schools. These lands have remained public property, and thus are in many cases available for educational purposes at present.



# THE SHIRIN PUBLIC SCHOOL.

This is without doubt the best country public school in the Island. It is located in the center of a fertile plain which is in rice. This school has an enrollment of about 200 boys and 75 girls.

Buildings and equipments.—Instead of the damp, dingy structure crowded into a densely populated Chinese village, which during the Chinese régime served the purpose of a school, we find the public school of to-day a well-constructed red brick building, properly ventilated and lighted, and located on an open piece of ground surrounded by playgrounds and athletic fields. Wherever possible the schoolhouse is located without the limits of the village and surrounded by open fields. The schoolhouses which are gradually springing up in the native villages throughout the island are modern up-to-date structures. Nor are they small, for the ordinary country school is planned to accommodate from 200 to 300 pupils, and contains from five to eight class rooms. Formosa is well populated, as the civilized half of the island contains 400 people to the square mile, hence schoolhouses must be built to accommodate large numbers of pupils. One of the particularly commendable features in regard to the establishment of a public school is the fact that ample facilities for playgrounds, athletic fields, and gardens are provided. Many of the country schools are equipped with tennis courts and out-door gymnastic apparatus. The most recently constructed public school is that located at Banka. a suburb of the capital city. In planning the construction of this school, the authorities have had the benefit of twelve years experience in public school construction, hence we find represented here the latest ideas in that direction. Like all other schools in the island, this institution is a group of one-story buildings, which cost \$30,000, and is arranged to accommodate 800 pupils.

Public school buildings are often utilized for social purposes, for public meetings, and as barracks for Government troops. The policy of the Government is gradually to extend the building of public schools as fast as the people are able to pay for them. At present, the Government grants a subsidy equal to one-tenth of the cost of construction. A public schoolhouse is distinctly an ornament to the village to which it belongs; in fact, one wonders how it is possible to raise sufficient money for its construction from among a people who, to judge by appearances, seem to have little or nothing. The character of the public school building erected in any district is determined by the amount of the subscriptions from the residents of the district. In the country districts the cost of the buildings ranges from \$500 to \$6,000. There are at present in the island 180 public schools and 29 branch schools for the elementary education of natives.

Teachers.—In the Government regulations it is stated that the public schools aim to give moral culture and practical knowledge to the native pupils in such a manner that their character may be molded into that of the nation and that they may acquire the national language (Japanese). The administration has in view the gradual supplanting of Chinese by Japanese as the language of the island, and

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the aim of the educational authorities is gradually to mold the native child into a loyal Japanese subject. As 95 per cent of the island's population is Chinese, it is quite apparent that the administration has taken upon itself no small task.

In this connection the question of securing teachers for the public schools becomes one of prime importance. The old Chinese idea that any person who had been under instruction for a certain number of years could in turn instruct others does not obtain with the Japanese. In Formosa, as in Japan, those appointed to the position of teacher must have had a special training in schools provided for that pur-There are, however, in Formosa a number of hired assistants, formerly teachers in private schools who have not graduated from a normal course, but these are being gradually displaced by graduates from the normal department of the Language School. Statistics for the year 1906 show that there were 392 Japanese and 470 native teachers in the public schools. The head teachers are Japanese, and while Japanese occupy also many of the subordinate positions, the educational authorities are making an effort to fill as many as possible of these latter positions with native teachers. The statistics for the year 1901 show 246 Japanese and 255 native teachers; these figures contrasted with those for the year 1906 show a substantial increase in the proportion of native teachers.

When teachers are desired for a new school the prefect applies to the educational section, which secures from the Language School a list of possible candidates with their recommendations. This list is forwarded to the prefect, who recommends to the governor-general a certain person for appointment as head teacher. The head teacher in turn recommends the appointment of certain assistants.

The native teacher can be secured at less than one-third the cost of the Japanese teacher, for the latter receives, upon an average, a salary of \$300 a year in addition to living quarters, while the former receives about \$8 a month and provides his own living quarters. The pay of the Japanese teacher in Formosa is very much higher than that received by his colleague in Japan. The women teachers, of whom there were in 1906 48 Japanese and 38 native, are paid from \$10 to \$20 a month for the Japanese and from \$3 to \$10 a month for the natives. The salary paid to the native male teacher is at present too low to induce the better class of young men to remain with the work for many years. Many of these after completing their three years' agreement take positions in other fields at higher pay.

The Japanese and native teachers appear to work well together. Naturally the Japanese teacher is handicapped by reason of his superficial knowledge of the native dialect and native customs, while on the other hand the native teacher finds it difficult to adapt himself to modern class-room methods. But these difficulties succumb to

experience, so that it is only a matter of time until they will have entirely disappeared. The efficiency of the native teacher, though not equal to that of the Japanese, is gradually improving. Many facilities are afforded teachers for advanced study. Summer schools for advanced training are opened each year in Taihoku City, and arrangements are made whereby the Government defrays the traveling expenses of teachers in attendance at these sessions in such a manner as to permit each teacher to attend once every three years. Besides summer schools, teachers' conferences are held once each month in each prefecture, the local prefect presiding.

The number of hours a day devoted to teaching averages five and the number of pupils to the class averages sixty. But the teacher's labors are not necessarily finished with his class-room work. He is often obliged to go among the parents of the children and exert his efforts toward keeping the pupils in regular attendance at school. This, as will be noted later, is no small task. If a principal is asked what he finds to be his greatest difficulty in educating the native, he will invariably reply that it is the indifference of the parents.

Course of study and text-books.—The regular prescribed course of study embraces six years. This course, which is fairly uniform throughout the island, includes the following branches: Morals, national language, arithmetic, Chinese composition, music, and gymnastics. Sewing is added for the girls, and agriculture, commerce, or manual training may be added for the boys. Table 4 shows the number of hours given to each branch and subject. By examining this tabulation the prominent position assigned to the study of Japanese becomes apparent. As already stated, it is the desire of the authorities to make Japanese the language of the island. The study of Chinese is carried no further than is necessary, for the allotment of four or five hours a week to this subject is only in response to a demand on the part of the parents that Chinese be studied in the schools to which they send their children. Another branch which appears throughout the programme is that termed "morals." In all of the elementary schools of Japan morals is a prescribed branch of study.4 The educational authorities in Formosa contend that the

<sup>•</sup> Instruction in morals in the schools of Japan is based on the imperial Rescript on Education issued in 1890. The following English version was made by a number of scholars convoked especially for the purpose by the Japanese educational department:

THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, JAPAN, June, 40th year of Meiji (1907).

Know ye, Our subjects:
Our Imperial Ancestors have founded Our Empire on a basis broad and everlasting and have deeply and firmly implanted virtue; Our subjects ever united in loyalty and filial piety have from generation to generation illustrated the beauty thereof. This is the glory of the fundamental character of Our Empire, and herein also lies the source of Our education. Ye, Our subjects, be filial to your parents, affectionate to your brothers and sisters; as husbands and wives be harmonious, as friends true; bear yourselves in modesty and moderation; extend your benevolence to all; pursue learning and cultivate arts, and thereby develop intellectual faculties and perfect moral powers; furthermore, advance public good and promote common interests; always respect the Constitution and observe the laws; should emergency arise, offer yourselves courageously to the State; and thus guard and maintain the prosperity of Our Imperial Throne coeval with heaven and earth.

Chinese pupil is particularly in need of instruction in morals, and that the teachers find it very difficult to teach it effectively. surroundings of the native child in the island have, without doubt, been most unfavorable, and it is not strange that the standard of morals is said to be low among them.

Table 4.—Study schedule for public elementary schools for the native Chinese,

•		First year.	Second year.		
Branch of study.	Hours per week.	Subject or topic.	Hours per week.	Subject or topic.	
Morals	2 9	Principles of morality Story telling, reading, composition, writing.	2 12	Same as first year. Do.	
Arithmetic Chinese	4 5	Simple operations to 20 Simple words, phrases, and sentences.	4 5	Same, but up to 100. Same as first year.	
Jymnastics Musica Bewing	2 1 0	Physical culture and play Singing	2 1	Do. Do.	
Total	23	·	26		
		Third year.		Fourth year.	
Branch of study.	Hours per week.	Subject or topic.	Hours per week.	Subject or topic.	
Morals Japanese Arithmetic Chinese Gymnastics Music Sewing	2 18 5 5 5 2 1	Same as first year	18 5 84 2	Same as first year. De. Decimals and fractions. Same as third year. Do. Same as first year. Simple sewing.	
Total	31		30		
		Fifth year.		Sixth year.	
Branch of study.	Hours per week.	Subject or topic.	Hours per week.	Subject or topic.	
MoralsJapanese	2 14	Principles of morality Reading, writing, composi- tion.	2 14	Same as fifth year. Do.	
Arithmetic	2 1	Decimals and fractions	4 2 1	Do. Do. Do. Do.	
Manual training f		Simple processes	ļ	Do. Do.	
Agriculture f		Elements		Do.	
Agriculture f		Elements	28		

So shall ye not only be Our good and faithful subjects, but render illustrious the best traditions of your forefathers.

The Way here set forth is indeed the teaching bequeathed by Our Imperial Ancestors, to be observed alike by Their Descendants and the subjects, infailible for all ages and true in all places. It is Our wish to lay it to heart in all reverence, in common with you. Our subjects, that we may all thus attain to the same virtue.

The 30th day of the 10th month of the 23rd year of Meiji.

(Imperial Sign Manual. Imperial Seal.)

Music increased at teacher's discretion.
In the third and fourth years girls are given but two hours a week in Chinese.
In the fifth year girls are given but two hours a week in Chinese.
Music increased at discretion of teacher.
Sewing is given to girls only, and the time devoted to it is deducted from the study of language.

/ Manual training, agriculture, and commerce given at discretion of teachers in charge

The Chinese parent finds it difficult to understand the usefulness of music and physical culture in the school curriculum, and if he had his way he would have more Chinese and less music and gymnastics. But one has only to visit a class of native pupils engaged in their singing exercises to appreciate the usefulness of the subject as a part of the daily programme. The Chinese child is fond of singing and has a better ear for music than the Japanese lad. He enters into his singing with a spirit of enjoyment far in excess of that which he exhibits in any of his other work, and for this reason much good language instruction may be imparted through this medium. Language is also taught by means of object lessons. Upon one of the writer's visits to a public school he found a teacher of second-year pupils holding before his class a live fish and drilling them in words and phrases descriptive of the object. Pictorial charts are likewise used in language instruction. These methods are a pleasing contrast to the old Chinese idea of forcing attention by a liberal use of the rod.

As for physical culture and gymnastics, three hours a week are given to the former, and school vards are provided with tennis courts. playgrounds, and gymnastic apparatus for the use of the pupils. The old Chinese system did not recognize the necessity for physical culture, as the ideal of the Chinese scholar was opposed to physical exertion of any kind. When the Japanese educational authorities placed physical culture in the public school curriculum they were criticised by the Chinese parent, who contended that it was done with the intention of training his children as soldiers for the Japanese army. Hence it was necessary to avoid giving any work in physical culture which bore the semblance of military drill. One of the admirable features of the exercises in physical culture is that they are given out of doors, at least so far as the weather will permit. The native child likes the work and is certainly benefited by it. Every one familiar with the Chinese knows his tendency to consumption and lung troubles. The teachers in the public schools attest the fact that the pupils are profiting much from the work in physical culture, for their general health is improved and they have become more active in their class-room work as a result.

Upon one of the writer's visits to a public school he found a class of sixth-grade pupils busily engaged in unraveling the apparently tangled skeins of world trade routes as depicted upon a commercial map. The Japanese instructor was making an effort to impress upon the minds of the pupils the position occupied by Formosa in the markets of trade.

To a westerner one of the peculiarities of the methods used in the East in the study of arithmetic is the place assigned to the abacus, or counting board. All pupils in arithmetic learn to count upon this instrument, and those familiar with the Chinese or Japanese account-

ant can bear witness to the remarkable speed and accuracy of his methods involving the use of the abacus, which to a foreigner is an incumbrance. A number of public schools include in their courses of study elementary agriculture and commerce and a certain amount of manual training. During the year 1906, 26 schools with 493 pupils included agriculture in their curricula; 3 schools with 333 pupils included courses in manual training; 2 schools with 35 pupils included the elements of commerce. But the work in these courses is still in an experimental state, and the department of education will be obliged to improve and extend it before it will amount to anything.

As for text-books, among the boards under special organization one has to do with the compilation of text-books. The public schools have been furnished with the products of the work of this board, which are sold to the pupils at a price which simply covers the cost of printing. The series of readers includes illustrated primers and more advanced books containing much the same kind of material as that found in Western readers, with the exception that the reading matter has to do with things Chinese and Japanese as well as things Western. For the study of Chinese, in the place of the abstruse Chinese classic, the illustrated primers and readers which have been introduced deal with various phases of Chinese life, and must be infinitely more interesting to the Chinese child. However, as the Chinese classic is being rapidly ousted from the elementary schools of China, it is scarcely fair any longer to contrast the Japanese introduction of simple readers with the Chinese use of the ancient Three Character Classic. The Japanese readers provided by the board include ten books arranged upon a progressive basis. The Chinese readers number six. The Sixth Reader, which is used for the fourth and fifth year pupils, contains forty lessons, the majority of which contain information dealing with Formosa and Japan. interesting feature connected with the lessons in the Japanese primer is that many of them deal with matters pertaining to personal cleanliness and to the importance of bathing. In passing, it might be said that the Japanese authorities are doing much to encourage cleanliness on the part of a people who are, in this respect, the direct antithesis of themselves. Foreign residents who have lived in Formosa for some years notice, on the part of the natives, considerable improvement in cleanliness, which improvement is due to the labors of the Japanese.

Pupils.—Pupils to be admitted to the public schools must be at least 7 and not more than 20 years of age. Of the 31,823 Chinese children enrolled in the elementary public schools during the year 1906, 10,318 were between the ages of 7 and 10, 11,929 between the ages of 10 and 13, 7,102 between the ages of 13 and 16, and 2,474 upwards of 16. According to grades, 14,484 were enrolled in the first

grade, 7.643 in the second, 4.528 in the third, 2.751 in the fourth, 1,577 in the fifth, and 815 in the sixth. The average daily attendance of the pupils for 1906 was 66 per cent of the enrollment, an increase of 1 per cent over the figures for the previous year. Contrasted with this, it is of interest to note that the average daily attendance of the Japanese in elementary schools for the same year was 90 per cent of the enrollment. This is hardly a fair comparison, for school attendance with the Japanese children is compulsory, and, moreover, there are not among the Japanese population the same reasons for keeping the children out of school as obtain among the natives. The bulk of the native population is engaged in farming, thus during certain seasons the parents find it to their interest to take the children out of school for work in the fields. The Japanese population is centered in the cities, and, with the exception of a small colony on the east coast engaged in the growing of peppermint, none of the Japanese are farmers. But aside from these facts there is a tendency on the part of the Chinese parent to take his child out of school for trivial causes. Chinese festivals and feast days are numerous, and, moreover, the Chinese boy who really desires to find an excuse for absence from school has a long list of relatives among whom marriage and funeral ceremonies, not to mention cases of illness, are bound to occur.

As already mentioned, the teacher, or more especially the principal of the school, finds the most difficult part of his labor that of persuading the parents to send their children to school regularly. Various measures are adopted to encourage regular attendance. Individual prizes are awarded and class banners are given, but where the Japanese would be content to work merely for a class banner the money-loving Chinese prefer a reward which may be transferred into cash for personal use.

Native pupils are selected from among the middle and wealthier classes, for only the children of those who are in a position to contribute toward the support of a school are admitted. In addition to the tax levied upon the property of the parents, each child in attendance at the public schools must pay a tuition fee which averages about 35 cents a year.

While the Chinese parents are gradually beginning to send their daughters to the public schools, they are far behind the Japanese parents in this regard. During the year 1906 the enrollment of Chinese girls in the public schools was equal to but one-seventh of that of boys, while among the Japanese the number of boys and girls in the elementary schools was about equal. In the lower classes and in the smaller country schools boys and girls are taught in the same classes, while in the larger schools they are separated after the first year. One of the commendable features of the work prescribed for girls is the sewing class.

Intellectually, the native boy seems to be the equal of the Japanese. While he does not take as readily to instruction in mathematics as the Japanese and is criticised by the teacher for his lack of reasoning power, yet his linguistic abilities are undoubtedly superior to those of the Japanese lad. He is possessed of a wonderfully retentive memory and learns Japanese so readily that after his fourth or fifth year it is possible to give all of this instruction in Japanese. In music the native boy appears to be specially gifted, if one is to judge from the enthusiasm with which he enters upon his singing exercises. Upon one of the writer's visits to public schools, individual members of the second grade were called upon to sing Japanese verse before the class. The teacher's requests were met with enthusiastic responses, and the children upon whom he happened to call rose without the least hesitancy and, with or without an accompaniment, sang the exercise.

The native pupil is criticised for his lack of appreciation of moral instruction; in fact, it is said that he appears to be scarcely affected by the teacher's exhortations to a better sense of morals.

One of the most hopeful features in the education of the Chinese native lies in the interest which he manifests in athletic games. The public school yard, during the fifteen minutes' recess at the end of each hour, presents as animated a scene as does that of any western school. The Chinese child loves play and takes a keen delight in all games. Already interclass and interschool athletic meets have been held, and not only do the pupils delight in them, but the parents exhibit a surprising amount of pleasure at seeing their children participate in these sports.

As for adopting Japanese customs, the native pupil exhibits no perceptible signs in that direction. He still wears the queue and dresses in true Chinese style, for home influence is bound strongly to assert itself, especially among a people whose family ties are so strongly interwoven as are those of the Chinese. The home influences and surroundings of the native child are distinctly Chinese, and as the native pupil does not associate with the Japanese boys, who have special schools provided for them, it will undoubtedly be years before he shows any signs of adopting customs other than those of his own race.

The number of pupils who have been graduated from the elementary Chinese public schools during the past seven years includes 1,803 boys and 50 girls. In other words, about 3 per cent of the children who enter the public schools graduate therefrom. This low proportion is accounted for in part by the fact that graduation does not entitle students to admission to secondary schools, for, in order to enter these institutions, they must submit to examination, and a fifth-year pupil is eligible to this.

#### (b) SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

For the secondary education of the native Chinese there are provided the following schools: (1) The Language School, including a normal department and a special school for girls; (2) the Medical School; (3) the Agricultural School; (4) the Industrial Sugar School. During the year 1906 there were graduated from the public elementary schools 502 boys, an increase of 130 over the previous year. During the same year 350 boys applied for admission to the Language School, of which number it was only possible to accept 90; 60 of these were assigned to the normal and 30 to the academic department. To the Medical School over 300 applied for admission, and only 35 could be accepted. The Agricultural Experimental Station accepts 80 new students each year, while the Industrial Sugar School takes about 12. Thus the secondary schools for native Chinese boys accommodate about 200 new students each year.

The Language School.—The Language School is under the direct control of the civil administration and is supported by Government funds. It contains a normal and an academic department. Students are admitted to either department upon an examination covering the first five years' work of the public elementary school. Applicants must be at least 14 and not over 23 years of age. The number of students admitted to the normal department is limited to from 60 to 80 a year, which at present is about one-third of the number that apply. This department aims to equip Chinese natives for work as public school teachers. The students live in dormitories and their expenses are met by the Government. In return for this, they are bound to give their services to the educational department for a period of three years following their graduation. The prescribed course of study embraces four years, and includes morals, pedagogy, Japanese, Chinese, history, geography, natural science, music, manual training, commerce, and physical culture. The following table (Table 5) shows the number of hours given to each subject:

Table 5.—Study schedule for the normal department (for Chinese) of the Language School.

	First year.		Second year.			
Subject.	Division of the subject.	Hours a week.	Division of the subject.	Hours a week		
Morals	Morality and etiquette	1 9	Same as first year			
Chinese	Reading and composition Geography of Japan	3 2 8	Same as first year History of Japan Algebra added			
Natural science	Vocal	1 4		:		
Music	Vocal	4	Same as first year			
Total		30		30		

TABLE 5.—Study	schedule for	the norma	l department	(for	Chinese)	of	the
	Langu	age School—	-Continued.				

•	Third year.		Fourth year.			
Subject.	Division of the subject.	Hours a week.	Division of the subject.	Hours a week		
Morals	Same as first year	1 2	Same as first year			
Chinese History Mathematics Natural science Writing and drawing Music Manual training Agriculture Commerce	Japan Algebra and geometry Use of musical instruments. Practice	1 2 2	Geometry  Blackboard drawing Same as third year  Same as third year			
Gymnastics	Sports and military gymnastics.	32	do	2		

The Banka Public School is utilized as a special practice school for upper-class men, who in the presence of normal school instructors carry on work as teachers. Upon graduation, the Chinese students are eligible to appointment as assistant teachers only. During the year 1906 there were graduated from the normal department 44 Chinese natives, making a total of 152 since the establishment of the school ten years ago.

The academic department of the Language School aims to prepare a certain number of young men to fill positions as Government clerks and interpreters, besides affording to others an opportunity for advanced schooling. It accepts students upon examination only, and a limited number are admitted each year. Applicants for admission are presumed to have completed at least five years in the public elementary school, and to be not less than fourteen nor more than twenty-three years of age. The school is located in the same compound with the normal department in Taihoku City. Dormitories are provided for the students, a certain number of whom are supported at Government expense, pledging in return their services for three vears following their graduation. The course of study embraces four years and includes morals, Japanese, Chinese composition, history, geography, arithmetic, natural sciences, writing, drawing, music. manual training, commerce, elementary law, and gymnastics. following table shows the number of hours given to each subject:



CLASS ROOM IN THE LANGUAGE SCHOOL. These natives are being trained as teachers for public schools.

TABLE 6.—Study schedule for the academic department of the Language School.

	First year.		Second year.	
Subject.	Division of the subject.	Hours a week.	Division of the subject.	Hours a week
Morals Japanese. Chinese Geography and history Mathematics Natural science Drawing Music Gymnastics (military)	Reading and composition Japanese geography Arithmetic Zoology and botany.  Vocal	2 8 4	Same as first year Japanese history added Algebra Same as first year Same as first year	
Subject.	Third year.  Division of the subject.	Hours a week.	Fourth year.  Division of the subject.	Hours a week
		a week.	· ·	1
Morals Japanese Chinese History and geography Mathematics Gymnastics (military) Manual training Agriculture Law and political economy, Drawing Music Natural science	Theory and practice	1 6 2 2 8 4 2 2	Same as first year Same as third year do Theory Same as third year Legal forms and bookkeeping. Instrumental Same as first year	

Tennis courts, athletic fields, and gymnastic apparatus are provided. Owing to the interest taken by the native students in athletics, their physical condition is being much improved. Athletic and bicycle meets between the different schools are held each year and prove to be of great benefit.

There were enrolled 76 students during the year 1906. The number of graduates from this department for the same year was 6. Since the establishment of the school 113 students have been graduated.

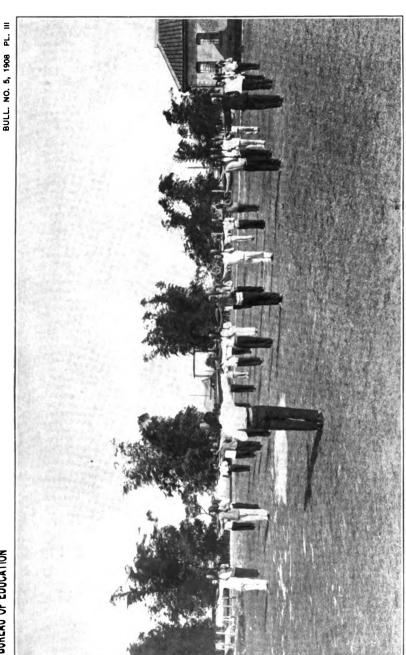
The girls' school.—For the education and industrial training of girls there was established in 1898 at Shirin a school which, for administrative purposes, is dependent upon the Language School. This school is intended solely for the education of girls and provides two courses, namely, course A, for common education; course B, for domestic sciences. Course A requires three years for completion and prescribes the following studies: Morals, Japanese, arithmetic, writing, music, and sewing. Pupils entering this course must be at least 8 years and not over 14 years of age. Course B provides for six years' work and prescribes the following studies: Morals, Japanese, reading, writing, arithmetic, music, sewing, knitting, artificial flower making, and embroidering. Students in this course range from 12 to 18 years of age. There are three Japanese teachers,

one of whom is a woman, and one native Chinese woman teacher. The native teacher instructs the younger pupils in sewing, for which she receives \$3.50 a month. Students are admitted by examination and but a limited number are accepted each year. At present there are 26 pupils enrolled in course A and 24 in course B. Since 1898 there have been enrolled in the school 350 pupils, of whom 50 have been graduated. Of these graduates, 30 are engaged as teachers in the public schools at salaries ranging from \$2.50 to \$5 a month, and the remainder have married and live at home.

The school is at present housed in poor quarters, two of the class rooms having earth floors. But a new building is planned for the school when it is moved to Taihoku, and a proper normal department for the training of women teachers will then be added. The work done by this school is indeed creditable, and when it is removed to more spacious and better equipped quarters it may be expected to fill a prominent position among the schools for the education of the natives.

The Medical School.—When the Medical School was opened eight vears ago the instructors were obliged to go among the Chinese and labor to secure students, and, in spite of the fact that the Government provided free schooling and a liberal allowance to cover the students' living expenses, their efforts were not at first crowned with much success. But when a few students were graduated and the parents discovered the splendid opportunities that a medical training offered for liberal financial returns, they were no longer hesitant about sending their children to the school. There are in Formosa 1,700 native Chinese physicians practicing according to old Chinese methods. The object of the Medical School is to replace these by trained physicians. The demand for the trained native physician is indeed good if we are to judge from the money compensation which the graduates of the Medical School now receive. The graduates, numbering 75, earn from \$25 to \$150 a month each. The wage of the Chinese laborer in the island averages \$6 a month. In face of the splendid incomes of these graduates, it is no little wonder that the money-loving Chinaman is anxious to have his son become an M. D.

The Medical School accommodates but 35 new students a year. Although the regulations of the school provide that the students' entire living expenses and tuition are to be defrayed by the institution, yet of the 300 applicants for admission at the beginning of the present year 30 offered to pay their own expenses. So long as the regulations remain as they are, admission will be determined entirely upon the basis of competitive examinations. Of the 158 students at present enrolled in the school, 10 pay their own way, while on the other hand there are a number who entered without a penny to their credit.



A CLASS IN PHYSICAL CULTURE IN THE NORMAL DEPARTMENT OF THE LANGUAGE SCHOOL FOR CHINESE NATIVES.



A CLASS IN READING IN THE SHIRIN GIRLS' SCHOOL.

To take the examination one must have the equivalent of five years' training in the public schools.

The Medical School is conducted in connection with a Japanese Red Cross Hospital which was established in the capital city several vears ago. At that time the Red Cross Society contributed \$25,000 for the erection of a building and \$2.500 a year for its maintenance. provided that the hospital would be conducted in connection with the medical training school. The Government has since taken the matter up, and is now erecting in the vicinity of this hospital buildings which, when completed, will have cost \$150,000. The Government sanitary bureau is also erecting in proximity to the Medical School and hospital, at a cost of \$150,000, a laboratory which, when completed, will undoubtedly be the best of its kind in the East. Besides these institutions, there is a Government hospital directly opposite the Red Cross Hospital. This building is being completed in sections, and when entirely finished will have cost about \$250,000. Hence the island is being furnished with splendid facilities for a medical education.

The school provides two courses, a preparatory and a regular course. The preparatory course covers one year and embraces the following subjects: Morals, Japanese, natural science, geography, history, arithmetic, and gymnastics. The regular course presupposes the satisfactory completion of the preliminary course and prescribes a course of study extending over four years. While this course does not presume to be of as high a standard as that which obtains in medical schools in Japan, yet it is, so far as circumstances will permit, fashioned after such. A post-graduate course of one year is offered and all are encouraged to take it. Patients in the hospital are treated free of charge, which affords advanced students practical work under competent instructors. There are two wards, each of which accommodates about 40 patients. Chinese and Japanese men and women occupy the same wards. The writer was surprised to note that about one-third of the students had cut their queues because they had found them to be in the way.

Upon a student's graduation he is presented with a certificate signed by the governor-general permitting him to practice medicine in the island. No one is permitted to practice here without a certificate from the Formosan government, although a certain proviso was made when the Japanese took possession of the island whereby 1,700 native physicians were granted privilege to continue their practice under certain limitations. When the new buildings are completed the school will be able to graduate 60 students a year. The number at present is 25. Of the 73 students already graduated, 43 have taken the post-graduate course, involving a training in the hospital. When the graduate begins the practice of medicine he is obliged to serve a

probationary period of several years, during which time he is watched closely by the Medical School authorities and every possible assistance rendered him. The institution is doing a splendid work and deserves high commendation.

The Agricultural School.—Formosa is and undoubtedly always will remain an agricultural colony. The soil is rich, rainfall abundant, and climate conducive to vegetation. Up to the time that the island became a possession of Japan nothing was done toward the application of science to agriculture. But now an agricultural experiment station under the supervision of the bureau of productive industries of the Formosan government retains a corps of specialists and does a splendid work toward improving agricultural conditions in the island. This institution is located about 3 miles south of the capital city and covers an area of 58 acres. The station is in charge of a superintendent, assisted by 2 expert teachers, 2 special clerks, 17 regular teachers, 12 regular clerks, and 12 laborers. Three of the teachers hold degrees as bachelors of agriculture from agricultural colleges in Japan.

The station provides a training school for Chinese natives. There are three courses of study offered—agriculture, veterinary science, and forestry. A student to be admitted to these courses must be a member of a family owning 21 acres of land, and must hold a certificate showing the completion of the fifth-year class of the public school, which means that he must have a working knowledge of the Japanese and Chinese languages. He must be upward of 17 years of age, physically able, and of good character. He must be in a position to be able to attend regularly for two successive years to the work as prescribed in the course of study. Candidates for entrance must make application through the prefect of the district, who is responsible for the examination and certification of the candidates. The course of study in the agricultural department covers two years and embraces the following subjects: Science of agriculture, entomology, pathology, cattle feeding, manual training, and methods of teaching. The students live in dormitories provided for them; food, clothing, and stationery are provided at their own expense, while bedding and mosquito nets are rented to them by the station. During the period of their attendance they receive 10 cents a day as a remuneration for their labor. It is said that a majority of the students are self-supporting, some even doing their own cooking. daily programme is something after the following manner: 5.30 a.m. in the summer (6 in the winter), rise; 6, inspection; 6.30, breakfast; forenoon, study; afternoon, practical work; 9 p. m., inspection; 9.30, lights out. Athletic fields are provided the students and a room is set aside for medical attendance, which is furnished free of charge.

For student experimental purposes 1 acre of land is set aside for rice fields,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  acres for vegetable and plant gardens, and 1.2 acres for an orchard. Here the students practice cultivation. The habits of harmful insects and methods of extermination are studied. A number of imported cattle are kept at the station, and the feeding and treatment of cattle in general studied.

The practical work is in charge of two teachers, who are reserve commissioned officers in the Japanese army, and the students are kept under military discipline.

Once each year the students are taken on exploring tours for observation and study, and whenever officers from the station go on lecture tours among the farmers in the island, corps of students accompany them to assist in the magic-lantern exhibitions as well as in other ways. Once every week the students assemble together with the officers and teachers of the station, and general discussions upon topics connected with the work are carried on in Japanese. Here the students have an opportunity to practice their Japanese, as they are obliged to speak in turn before the assembly, setting forth the results of their observations and study. In impromptu speaking, and in making an appearance before a public assembly, the Chinese student surpasses the Japanese. On holidays and during spare hours they are encouraged to collect insects.

There are now 84 students admitted to the agricultural school each year. Up to the present 106 students have been graduated from the agricultural course, the majority of whom are engaged in work connected with the station.

The products under experimental cultivation and study in the grounds of this station are rice, sugar cane, peanuts, China grass, jute, indigo, tobacco, tumeric, sesame, peppermint, and silk. A special experimental garden for tea culture is conducted at An-pei-ching, while another for tobacco culture is established at Bioritsu.

Up to the present the station has compiled the following reports:

- 1. Investigations on the principal farm products of Formosa.
- 2. Agricultural experiments.
- 3. Neat cattle in Formosa, with some notes on the Indian buffalo.
- 4. The Java potato.
- 5. Elephant-trunk worms which grow on rice.
- 6. Description of farm implements used in Formosa.
- 7. Results of experiments in sericulture.
- 8. The six varieties of harmful rice worms.

Numbers 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 have been translated into Chinese and distributed among growers.

As a result of the station's experiments in the growing of peppermint in Formosa, a Japanese colony has been founded on the east coast and the cultivation of this plant undertaken on a large scale. The station is also experimenting in sericulture, and hopes to add the growing of the silk worm to the industries of the island.

The veterinary course is open to students who have completed the agricultural course. Applicants must be of at least 19 years of age and of good health. The course of study extends over six months, and the rules pertaining to students and instruction are similar to those of the agricultural course. At present 16 students are enrolled.

The course in forestry is just being instituted, hence little can be said about the work which it is intended to cover. Formosa is rich in forest products and there is an excellent opportunity for the student of forestry.

The Industrial Sugar School.—Since the island became a Japanese possession much has been done by the administration to improve and extend the cane-sugar industry. At present about 20 per cent of Japan's consumption of sugar is furnished by Formosa. Improved sugar cane has been introduced from Hawaii and Java, and modern crushing mills are being erected. This industry furnishes an excellent opportunity for the operation of industrial schools in connection with it. The administration has not overlooked this fact. Under the supervision of a Government sugar bureau there was opened in February, 1905, an industrial sugar school in connection with an experiment station for the training of apprentices for work in sugar mills. In July, 1906, the Industrial Sugar School and the analytical and experiment stations were consolidated in an experimental department of the sugar bureau.

In this department native and Japanese students are trained as apprentices. Those who are admitted to the school are expected to have had an elementary education. In this school there are two departments, a sugar manufacturing department and a sugar engineering department. The students in the engineering department number 15, while those in the manufacturing department number 26. The branches of study include agriculture, physics, chemistry, arithmetic, national language, engineering, sugar manufacture, analysis of sugar, management of stationary engines, implement manufacture, management of sugar machinery, and the cultivation of sugar. The number of hours per week devoted to each subject is given in Table 7. The course is the same for both departments during the first year, but in the second special courses are given. At present no suitable text-books have been found for the use of the pupils, hence the instructors are obliged to have them take notes from lectures each day.

TABLE 7.—Number of hours per week allotted to each subject at the Industrial Sugar School.

#### COURSE IN SUGAR MANUFACTURE.

	I	first yea	r.	Second year.			
Subject.	First period.	Second period.	Third period.	First period.	Second period.	Third period.	
Agriculture Physics Chemistry Arithmetic.	4 5	3 4 4 5	8 4 4 5	5 4 8	5	3	
Japanese. Sugar manufacturing. Sugar malysis. Cultivation of sugar					16		
Total	20	20	27	28	26	24	

#### ENGINEERING COURSE.

Agriculture Physics Chemistry Arithmetic Japanese Engineering Boiler and engine management Manufacture of implements Management of sugar machinery	4 4 5 4 3	3 4 4 5 4 8	8 4 4 5 4	3	\$ 5 9	
Total	23	23	29	39	26	26

Prior to the opening of a sugar mill by the station, student apprentices in both courses were engaged in the cultivation of cane each day from 1 to 5 p. m. (Saturdays and Sundays excepted); but when the sugar plant was installed, students in the engineering course were assigned as assistants in the installation and operation of machinery, while those in the manufacturing course were assigned to work on the analysis and manufacture of sugar. Their work is carried on under the guidance of competent teachers, who take the students on inspection tours to native and improved mills. Recently the entire corps of students has been engaged in work in one of the large modern mills under the supervision of an instructor, and this has proved very beneficial to them.

#### (c) PRIVATE SCHOOLS FOR CHINESE NATIVES.

During the Chinese régime the Chinese youth had for the most part to depend upon private schools for his instruction. The part which these schools played in the educational system during that period is fully set forth in the previous section on "Education under the Chinese." The independent position occupied by the private schools prevented them from being affected by the coming of the Japanese, and up to the year 1898 they occupied much the same position with the native masses as before. In that year, when the public school system was formally established, certain regulations were

made to bring the private schools under Government control and supervision. As long as a complete system of public schools was not established throughout the island the administration deemed it wisest to permit the private schools to continue, but, if possible, to place them under such supervision and control as might result in eventually bringing them up to a standard approaching that of the public schools.

The important position still occupied by the private schools is attested by the fact that, during the year 1906, 20,142 native pupils were under instruction in them. These figures as compared with those for the year 1901 show a decrease of 8,000, but still represent a number equivalent to about two-thirds of the enrollment in the public schools. On the other hand, compared with the figures for the year 1905 there is a slight increase. In 1906 there were 936 teachers in the private schools as compared with 1,543 in 1901.

The regulations pertaining to Chinese private schools prescribe that such schools shall be under the supervision of the respective local prefects; that the course of study as prescribed under the old procedure shall be gradually altered so as to include the Japanese language and arithmetic; that reports shall be made each year to the office of the prefect setting forth full particulars as to the work of the school, student enrollment, and other matters; and that certain sanitary precautions shall be observed. The governor-general may prescribe the use of such text-books as he may deem necessary, and in cases in which the schools are properly managed certain subsidies may be granted by the administration. In obedience to the above regulations, by the year 1906 arithmetic had been introduced into 187 private schools, Japanese into 112, and both arithmetic and Japanese into 80. A regulation more recent than these prescribes that private schools shall cease to be conducted in districts in which public schools are established. There were 927 private schools in operation during the year 1906.

These figures tend to show that the private school is still popular with the Chinese. A parent may send his children to such a school upon payment of about \$5 a year for tuition, which is all he need pay toward the support of the school. The average native private school makes provision for about twenty pupils. As each child is a class unto himself, the parent can withdraw him from the school at any time and for as many days as he may please without interfering with his work. Furthermore, the pupil may give the bulk of his time to the study of Chinese in accordance with the wishes of the native parent.

But for all this the native private school has little to commend it. It is housed in poorly lighted, poorly ventilated quarters, and under the instruction of poorly trained teachers. The best that can be said

for it is that it is distinctly Chinese, and naturally in favor on that account with those who criticise the public school as teaching too much Japanese and too little Chinese. As the establishment of public schools means the displacing of the private schools, it will undoubtedly not be many years before the native private school will no longer find a place in the educational system of the island.

#### 6. SCHOOLS FOR THE JAPANESE.

The Japanese in Formosa number less than 2 per cent of the island's population. That comparatively few Japanese have settled in Formosa can not be imputed to a lack of educational facilities. The 3,850 children of school age are being well cared for; in fact, the schools provided for them are in many respects superior to corresponding institutions in Japan. The system conforms to that of the mother country and consists of elementary and secondary schools.

#### (a) ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

That 93 per cent of the Japanese children of school age in Formosa are under instruction is due, in part at least, to the fact that elementary education is with them compulsory. Elementary schools are established throughout those portions of the island inhabited by the Japanese and are under the supervision of the local prefects, as are the public schools for the Chinese natives; the expenses of maintenance are defraved from the prefectural treasuries, although a tuition fee of 15 cents a month for the primary and 25 cents a month for the intermediate course is assessed against each pupil enrolled. The total amount of such tuition fees during the year 1906 was about \$5,000. The expenditures for the maintenance of these elementary schools during the same year amounted to about \$35,000, which sum includes an item of \$5,000 for buildings. districts in which the Japanese population is so sparse as not to warrant the establishment of elementary Japanese schools, arrangements are made whereby separate classes for the instruction of Japanese children are provided in the public schools for the Chinese. During the year 1906 fourteen native Chinese schools were giving special courses for Japanese pupils, the 221 pupils in these schools paying. the regular tuition fee.

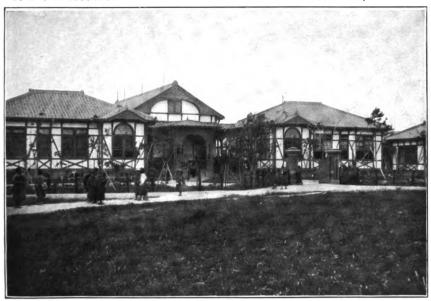
The smallest regular elementary Japanese school in the island is that at Toen, which provides for 41 pupils. The largest is the Taihoku City School, which has an enrollment of about 700 pupils. The Taihoku school cares for nearly one-fourth of the pupils in the elementary Japanese schools, and is a model institution. The buildings were erected at a cost of \$40,000 and are remarkably well adapted to school purposes, in addition to being distinctly ornamental. Like all schools erected by the Japanese authorities in the island, the buildings

are so arranged that each room occupies the entire width of the building, thus providing excellent lighting and ventilating facilities. There are ten class rooms, a large assembly room, a sewing room for girls, a room for scientific apparatus and natural history specimens, and proper office accommodations for principal and teachers. The grounds are spacious enough to provide flower gardens, playgrounds, and athletic fields. The site was well chosen, being the most favorable location in the outskirts of the capital city. There is not in the whole of Japan an elementary school of a similar size as well housed as is this.

The teachers in the elementary Japanese schools of Formosa receive much higher pay than those in similar schools in Japan. The average monthly salary of the Japanese elementary school teacher in Formosa is \$25, while that of the teacher in Japan is less than one-third of this amount. Women teachers are paid less. Owing to the splendid inducements in the way of good salaries, the educational authorities in the island experience no difficulty in securing excellent material as teachers in the elementary Japanese schools. In Japan the salaries of the elementary school teachers depend very often upon each annual budget in a school district, and, if the district is poor, the teacher is often obliged to suffer a reduction in his allowance. The teacher in the elementary Japanese schools in Formosa is not thus inconvenienced. For the most part, the lower grades in these elementary schools are taught by women, who receive an average salary of about \$8 a month.

The course of study prescribed for the elementary Japanese schools in Formosa is similar to that for schools in Japan. It is quite necessarv that it should be thus, for a large number of children are constantly returning to or coming from Japan, and naturally wish to continue their schooling with as little inconvenience to themselves as possible. Furthermore, graduates of elementary Japanese schools in the island are received in Japan on an equal standing with the graduates of the elementary schools there. As in Japan, the elementary gives a primary course of four years and an intermediate course of two years. In the primary course morals, Japanese, arithmetic, music, and physical culture are taught, with sewing lessons added for girls. In the intermediate course Japanese history and geography, natural science, and drawing are taught in addition to the subjects already enumerated. The text-books used are similar to those in use in Japan. These, however, are to be supplemented by books especially adapted to Formosa.

Children are admitted to the elementary Japanese schools between the ages of 6 and 14 years. There were 3,064 pupils enrolled in these schools during the year 1906, about one-half of whom were girls. Fourteen native Chinese schools were, during that year, giving



A. TAIHOKU CITY ELEMENTARY SCHOOL FOR JAPANESE.

This is a model institution.



B. TEACHERS AND PUPILS OF THE ENZANNO PUBLIC SCHOOL FOR ABORIGINES, IN KOSHIN PREFECTURE.

special courses for Japanese children, who numbered 115 boys and 106 girls. The average daily attendance of pupils enrolled in the elementary Japanese schools during 1906 was 2,763. When a school is sufficiently large to permit, boys and girls are taught in separate classes.

One of the particularly interesting features of the Japanese school is the system of class captains, who are selected, one for each class, on a basis of scholarship. When a visitor enters a class room, the class captain rises from his seat, calls the class to attention, and the members in obedience to his orders rise and, as one person, salute the visitor. When the class is to be dismissed, it is done at the orders of its captain, who assembles them on the school grounds in company formation and, when they are at attention, gives the command "fall out." Likewise when the school session is called the boys fall in under their respective class captains and march to their class rooms. Physical culture in the Japanese school involves considerable military drill, which, whenever the weather will permit, is carried on out of doors. The Japanese pupil in Formosa demands more recreation and play than he would were he in a school in Japan, for climatic conditions in the island are conducive to fevers and epidemics. Moreover, the pupil in Formosa finds that he can not study so effectively as he could in Japan, hence he must have more exercise and recreation to keep in good physical condition.

Another disadvantage to the Japanese child in Formosa is the inferior social conditions which surround him. The first Japanese to come to the island were not from the better classes and their moral standards were not high, hence the children of the better classes are often thrown among evil associates. The educational department is doing everything possible to counteract these unfavorable conditions, and, so far as the elementary schools are concerned, the Japanese pupil is receiving excellent care from the educational authorities in the island.

#### (b) SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

The facilities furnished the Japanese student for secondary education are quite equal, in point of excellence, to those for elementary training. After completing his six years of primary and intermediate school training, the Japanese boy who would remain in Formosa has the choice of entering the Middle School or the normal department of the Language School. For the girls there is a girls' high school.

The Middle School.—A 15-acre piece of ground has been secured by the Formosan government in proximity to Taihoku City for the erection of buildings and dormitories for a new middle school for the Japanese. The completion of these buildings will involve an expenditure of \$250,000 and will give to the island a middle school superior to any in Japan. The cost of this project will be defrayed from the government treasury. The school is at present housed in temporary quarters in the city. The students, who number 104, are required to pay a tuition fee of 80 cents a month. The school provides two departments, which may be styled A and B.

Department A makes English the major subject and proposes to train a limited number of students in English manners, customs, and ways of living, besides affording to them an academic training. Baron Goto, late civil governor in the island, who is responsible for the founding of this department, said that it was his purpose in recommending such a course to afford a means whereby Japanese boys may be so thoroughly trained in the English language, manners, and customs as to be able, at the completion of their studies, to move about in foreign society with ease and comfort; in a word, to produce Japanese gentlemen conversant with foreign customs. This course is a noteworthy innovation in Japanese methods of training students in a foreign language and foreign customs, there being nothing to correspond with it in Japan, with the possible exception of a private institution in Tokyo under foreign management. In light of the many criticisms which have during the past six months appeared throughout the Japanese press on the superficial methods of foreignlanguage instruction in the middle schools of Japan, this experiment in Formosa will undoubtedly be watched with the closest attention by Japanese educationists.

The number of students in this course to enter each year is limited to 30, who are to be selected by competitive examination. Applicants must be at least 11 years of age, must have a training equal to that given in the elementary Japanese schools, and must be able to defray their living expenses in a dormitory provided in the school. These expenses, from a Japanese standpoint, are high, being at least \$15 a month. Students are required to live and dress in foreign style. The course will extend over six years, and it is planned to have a separate dormitory for each class, which is to be composed of 30 members. Each dormitory will be presided over by the head teacher of the corresponding class or form. The first class of 30 students was admitted this year, but dormitory accommodations for them will not be in readiness until next April. The course of study includes Japanese, English, Chinese, history, geography, mathematics, natural history, physics, chemistry, drawing, music, manual training, and gymnastics. The number of hours per week devoted to each subject is given in Table 8.

## Table 8.—Middle School study schedule—Department A.

#### FIRST TERM (3 YEARS).

	First year.		Second year.		Third year.		
Subject.	Division of the subject.	Hours per week.	Division of the subject.	Hours per week.	Division of the subject.	Hours per week.	
National patriotism.	Requirements of the nation.	1	Same as first year.	1	Same as first year.	100	
Japanese	Reading, composi- tion, conversation, and writing.	4	do	4	Grammar added	1	
English	Easy conversation, pronunciation, spelling, and writ- ing.	9	Translation and grammar added.	7	Same as second year.		
Mathematics	Arithmetic	4	Algebra added	4	Arithmetic, alge- bra, and geom- etry.		
History	Historical tales	1	Japanese history	2	Same as second year.	5	
Geography	Elements	1	Japan and east Asia.	2	West Asia and Japan.		
Natural history	do	1	Plants, animals, and minerals.	1	Same as second year.	4	
Total		21		21		25	

#### SECOND TERM (3 YEARS).

	Fourth year.		Fifth year.		Sixth year.		
Subject.	Division of the subject.	Hours per week.	Division of the subject.	Hours per week.	Division of the subject.	Hours per week.	
National patriot-	Same as first year	1	Political science	1	Same as fifth year.		
Japanese	Same as third year	3	Same as third year.	3	Same as third	1	
English	Translation, para- phrase, conversa- tion, composition, and grammar.	5	Same as fourth year.	5	year. Same as fourth year.	1	
Chinese Mathematics	Same as English	5 4	do	5 4	do Trigonometry added.		
History		2 1	Western Geology	2 1	Universal Physical geogra- phy.		
		2 2	Physiology	2 2			
Total		25		25		2	

An advanced course covering two years will be provided for graduates. This latter course is designed especially to fit young men for positions in the Government service, particularly the colonial service. In speaking with Mr. Hoinjo, the principal of the Middle School, the writer was informed that the new Middle School is to be patterned, to a certain extent at least, after Abbott's Hall, England, which he had occasion to visit a year ago. The Middle School retains at present two foreigners as teachers of English, one a Cana-

dian woman and the other an American, the former of whom is to have charge of the dormitories to be opened next April.

Department B, which is in reality the Middle School proper, requires five years for its completion, and corresponds to the regular middle schools in Japan. The students registered in this department do not live in dormitories. The course of study includes morals, Japanese, Chinese, English, history, geography, mathematics, natural history, physics, chemistry, elements of law and economics, drawing, music, and gymnastics. The number of hours allotted to each subject is shown in Table 9. An advanced course covering one year supplements the one just described. Military drill forms an important feature of the prescribed work for the students of both departments of the Middle School, and is conducted under the direction of a former army officer.

TABLE 9.—Middle School study schedule—Department B.

		First year.			Second	year.		Third year		
Subject.	Divis	on of the subject.	Division of the subject.			Hours a week.	Division of the sul ject.	Hours a		
MoralsJapanese and Chinese.	Readi com writ	ng, grammar, position, and ing.	1 7	Same	as first	year.	1 7	Same as first year	ř.	
English History and ge- ography.	Eleme	entary 6 3 Asia			o and Aust led.		6 3	Grammar added Oriental history and European geography.	1	
Mathematics Natural history		neticals	4 2		ora adde ny		4 2	Geometry added Physiology, zo ology, and sani tation.	-   :	
Drawing	nand Ig ry	Mechanical added Same as first year . do			1 1 3	Free-hand Same as first year	r.l			
Total			28	]			28		3	
_		Fou	rth ye	ear.		1	-	Fifth year.		
Subject.		Division of th	ject.	Hours a week.				Hours a week		
Morals	ese	Advanced wor Same as third y America and A	k /ear frica .		1 6 7 8	Sam Uni	Same as fourth year Same as third year Universal history and ge-			
Mathematics		Algebra and ge	omet	ry	4	Geo		and trigonom-		
Natural history Physical sciences Law and political		Zoology Chemistry			3	 Phy	sics		•••••	
omy. Drawing Military drill		Mechanical			1 3			• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •		
Total			. <b></b> .		30	İ		• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	3	

The officers of the Middle School consist of 1 principal (Shonin rank), 7 teachers of Shonin rank and 17 of Hannin rank, a superintendent of dormitories, and a clerk. The foreign English teachers

receive \$900 and \$1,800, respectively. Living quarters are furnished to all of the above teachers. The school has not been established sufficiently long to graduate many students, but during the year 1906 19 were graduated.

The normal department.—There is connected with the Language School a separate normal department for the training of Japanese young men as teachers for the public schools. Students to be accepted in this course must be at least 18 and not over 25 years of age, and must have completed a course of study equal to that of the fourth year of the Middle School. The course of study extends over one year and includes the following subjects: Morals, pedagogy, Japanese, Formosan Chinese, history, geography, natural science, music, manual training, agriculture, commerce, and physical culture. Manual training, agriculture, and commerce occupy but a small part of the study schedule. This department graduates about twenty students a year, and since its establishment about ten years ago it has furnished 145 teachers for the public schools of the island.

The Girls' Higher School.—There are more girls in attendance in the elementary Japanese schools, in proportion to the number of school age, than there are boys. Girls to be admitted to the Higher School must be not less than 12 years of age and must have had an elementary school education. The course of study prescribed for this institution is similar to that which obtains in like schools in Japan. The admirable feature of its curriculum is that it attaches great importance to the domestic sciences. Graduates from this school are received in Japan on the same status as graduates of Girls' Higher Schools there. There were 149 girls enrolled in this school during the year 1906, which was 64 less than the number of boys enrolled in the Middle School, and 125 more than the number of native Chinese girls enrolled in the Shirin Girls' Higher School.

Japanese students completing the courses prescribed in the secondary schools above enumerated are in a position to enter upon advanced work in schools in Japan. The facilities which the Formosan government offers to the Japanese youth for a first-class commonschool education are indeed good, and when the new middle school is completed the island will have a high school superior to any in Japan.

7. SCHOOLS FOR ABORIGINES.

The savage tribes in Formosa still occupy and control the eastern (mountainous) half of the island. Their population is estimated at 103,000. The question of bringing this population under control and opening their lands to exploitation is one which is receiving much attention from the administration. A military police force, made up of 3,500 Japanese police, 1,500 Chinese native police, and 5,000 native

coolies, has succeeded, under the direction of the superintendent of police, in establishing a guard line along the savage frontier. This line has been advanced from time to time, but recently it was forced back by a combined attack on the part of the savages in the northern part of the island and much territory regained to savage control. The difficulties with which the police have to contend are many. The country is mountainous and covered with a dense jungle well adapted to the sort of guerrilla warfare which the savages indulge in.

The tribes in the northern part of the island belong to the Atayal group of head-hunter savages and are the most difficult with which to deal, while the Amis, Paiwan, and Payuma groups in the eastern and southern districts are comparatively peaceful. It is among these latter groups that the administration is attempting to establish schools. Up to the present twelve schools have been opened in Taito prefecture in villages along the east coast and three in Koshun in the southernmost part of the island. It is worthy of note that these schools have been established in the same villages and among the same tribes as those opened by Chinese thirty-five years ago. In fact, as a result of the work of the Chinese school in one of the villages in Koshun, many of the members of one of the tribes of the Paiwan group still wear the queue and dress in Chinese style.

The regulations provide that no tuition fees shall be charged in the savage schools. The expenses of maintenance are defrayed from the prefectural treasuries. During the year 1906 the sum of \$12,000 was spent on savage education. The course of study extends over four years, and aims to teach the children to read and write the Japanese kanna (alphabet) and perform the simple operations in arithmetic. Their course of study naturally includes much conversational work in Japanese. Music, manual training, and agriculture are added as local conditions permit. The pupils are rewarded for faithful work by prizes consisting of clothing and food, The teachers assigned to these schools number 40, of whom 25 are Japanese, 8 Chinese natives, and 7 savages. They are paid \$272 a year for the Japanese, \$44 a year for the Chinese native, and \$35 a year for the savage teachers. The Japanese teacher in a savage village is recognized by the members of the tribe in that place as an important personage. He has succeeded in winning the good will of the chieftain and headmen, for many instances are cited of these chieftains and headmen calling upon the village school-teacher to act as arbiter in their controversies.

There were 996 boys and 92 girls enrolled in the fifteen savage schools during the year 1906. Of these pupils, 167 were between the ages of 7 and 10 years; 565 between the ages of 10 and 15; 280 between the ages of 15 and 20; 29 upward of 20 years, and 43 of ages unknown. The average daily attendance during the year was 577

for the boys and 56 for the girls. The low average daily attendance is probably due to the fact that, owing to the poverty of these tribes, they are obliged to utilize the services of their children as much as possible in the fields which they till. These schools have thus far graduated 47 boys and 1 girl. One of the graduates subsequently entered the medical school in Taihoku City and did very creditable work. The other graduates are employed as interpreters and police in the districts in which they live.

These tribes prove themselves capable of being affected by civilizing influences. The children make good progress in their studies, but appear to be lacking in mathematical ability. The parents seem to be anxious to have their children learn to read and write. Indications at present seem to point to a successful issue in the educational work among these tribes.

## 8. EDUCATION UNDER THE JAPANESE CONTRASTED WITH THAT UNDER THE DUTCH AND CHINESE.

In contrasting education under the Japanese with that under the Dutch and that under the Chinese we should measure each in light of its peculiar aims and accomplishments.

The Dutch aimed to convert to Christianity the savage tribes among whom they settled, hoping thereby to better their trade relations. Their missionaries came to Formosa and found a people (or peoples) savage and addicted to vile practices. As a result of the thirty years' labors of these missionaries the savage tribes were given a written language and improved social customs, which were carried down through successive generations, remnants of which are to be found even to the present day. Measured in the light of their day or, in fact, in the light of to-day, the achievements of the Dutch missionaries can not be judged otherwise than as remarkable.

Education during the Chinese régime in Formosa naturally followed the trend of education in China proper. The Imperial examinations dragged all that flavored of educational effort through the same ruts year after year until one administrative officer, bolder and more enlightened than his predecessors, attempted to lift it upon a higher plane—that of usefulness—only to have his work so well begun suffer at the hands of a reactionary successor. But so far as the masses were concerned the private school met their wants, which fortunately were few.

The really interesting phase in educational effort under the Chinese was that which had to do with the establishment of schools among the aborigines. As early as the beginning of the eighteenth century the Chinese recognized the utility of the public school in Formosa as a means of bringing an alien race under subjugation. The schools

established among the tribes which had previously come under the influence of the Dutch assisted to hasten the adoption of Chinese customs by these tribes. It was not, however, till 1875 that the Chinese seriously attempted to subjugate any of the untamed savages through the medium of the public school. When, in that year, special textbooks for the instruction of the savages were adopted, it appeared as if the Chinese had begun to realize the fact that the Three Character Classic was doubly meaningless when placed in the hands of a savage child. But such was not the case; for, ten years later, when the enlightened Liu Ming Chuan attempted to subjugate the tribes of the headhunter Atayal Group of savages by giving them schools, he adhered to the old custom and prescribed the Chinese Classic. Despite the apparent crudeness of their methods, the fact remains that the Chinese had accomplished, during the years 1875 to 1891, much in the way of assimilating the savage tribes throughout the island.

The fact that when Japan took possession of Formosa she found but the fragments of an antiquated Chinese school system, should not be interpreted to mean that had China continued in the possession of the island that system would have been perpetuated. The educational revolution which has swept over China during the past few years could not but have affected Formosa.

When Japan annexed Formosa she already had the advantage of twenty-five years' experience in modern educational administration. Before the island had been pacified she set to work to establish a system of public instruction. Now after twelve years' labors we find 5.5 per cent of the native Chinese children of school age enrolled in public schools, or about 9 per cent under instruction in both public and private schools. Statistics of education in the Philippines for the year 1906 show 20 per cent of the children of school age enrolled in public schools, and about 25 per cent under instruction in both public and private schools.

Public instruction in Formosa aims to convert the native child into a loyal Japanese subject. It attempts, however, to reach only that part of the native Chinese which is able to contribute toward the financial support of the schools. The people are given schools as they are able to pay for them. But when a district gets a school, it is a splendidly constructed, well-equipped building, set upon a site which allows of plenty of room for playgrounds. The teachers provided for these schools are well trained and apparently devoted to their work. Statistics for the years 1900 to 1907 show that the enrollment in the public schools is gradually increasing. (See Tables 10 and 11, pages 63, 64.)

The facilities for the secondary education of the native Chinese are apparently insufficient. A Chinese parent, a man who pays in taxes several hundred dollars a year toward the support of the public ele-

mentary school in his district, when asked why he did not send his boy to it, said, "What's the use? If I send him to the public school he learns Japanese, and when he has finished what use is it to him? His chances of entering a higher school are very few." Those secondary institutions which are provided are good, and so soon as they are in a position to accommodate much larger numbers than possible under the present conditions, they will assist greatly in the cause of native Chinese education.

The public schools established by the Japanese are doing infinitely more for the native Chinese girl than any Chinese school ever attempted to do. But the number of native girls in attendance in the public schools in proportion to the population is still exceedingly low. The Chinese parent is only beginning to give to his daughter the opportunities which a few years ago he deemed appropriate for his son only.

The administration has not neglected to furnish to the Japanese children resident in the island splendid facilities for both elementary and secondary education. Ninety-three per cent of the Japanese children of school age in Formosa are under instruction. The schools and the instruction provided are, on an average, better than those furnished in Japan. As for secondary education, the new middle school will eclipse anything of a like nature in the mother country, and will afford the graduates of the elementary schools splendid facilities for advanced education.

As regards the aborigines, schools are being provided for the children of the peaceful tribes only. According to the policy of the administration, subjugation must precede education. This is perhaps the safest policy. The savage problem in Formosa is one which presents great difficulties, and it will undoubtedly be some years before the administration will have succeeded in placing the savage tribes under control.

Thus it may be said for education under the Japanese that the quality of the facilities furnished is excellent. It may, however, be criticised in that it does not pretend to reach the native masses. The Emperor's decree of 1871 in regard to education does apply to the Japanese resident in the island, but it can not yet be said that it is intended to embrace the native Chinese population. To convert 3.000.000 Chinese into loyal Japanese subjects—in a word, to "Japanize" them, is indeed an ambitious aim. Formosa's proximity to China and the overwhelming preponderance of Chinese in the island are factors which, combined with the strong racial characteristics of the Chinese, make one hesitate to express a favorable opinion upon the subject. The Japanese in official positions in the island are by no means unanimous in an assertion of Japan's ability to Japanize

the natives. It is a question which time alone can answer. In the meanwhile, other nations will watch with interest Japan's labors in that direction.

#### Expenditure for education for the year 1906.

FOR THE LANGUAGE SCHOOL, INCLUDING THE EXPENSES OF THE MIDDLE SCHOOL, THE SCHOOL FOR NATIVE GIRLS, THE GIRLS' THIGHER SCHOOL, AND TEACHERS' SALARIES IN THE BANKA PUBLIC SCHOOL.

	Yen.
Teachers' salaries	52, 852. 14
Traveling expenses of teachers	
Foreign teachers (English)	
Students at government expense	30, 291, 07
Expenses of maintenance	10, 048. 07
Repairs	3, 599. 95
Miscellaneous expenses	6, 963. 30
Total	110, 626. 61
ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS FOR JAPANESE.	
Teachers' salaries	34, 492, 80
Traveling expenses of teachers	
Maintenance expenses	•
Repairs	
Miscellaneous expenses	
Total	57, 934. 15
PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR CHINESE NATIVES.	
Teachers' salaries	244, 752. 38
Teachers' traveling expenses	12, 176. 06
Total 4	256, 928. 44
PUBLIC SCHOOLS FOR SAVAGES.	
Teachers' salaries	13, 430. 45
Traveling expenses of teachers	868. 90
Maintenance and repairs	
Miscellaneous expenses	
Total	23, 346. 40
SUM MARY.	
Language school	110, 626, 61
Elementary schools for Japanese	57, 934. 15
Public schools for Chinese natives	256, 928, 44
Public schools for savages	
Grand total	448, 835. 60
Note.—The Japanese ven exchanges at the rate 1 ven = \$0.498 United St	ates gold.

NOTE.—The Japanese yen exchanges at the rate 1 yen = \$0.498 United States gold.

Of the above items, the expenditures for the Language School, which include, besides the Language School proper, the Middle School, the Girls' Higher School, and the Shirin Girls' School, are

All other expenses are met from the district funds for the purpose.

met from the insular treasury; the expenditures for the elementary schools for Japanese are met from the prefectural treasuries; those for the public schools for Chinese natives are met from local taxes (for teachers' salaries and traveling expenses), revenues from school properties, and contributions; those for the public schools for savages from the prefectural treasuries. Tuition fees in all cases go toward the support of the schools from which they are collected.

It is to be noted that in the items set forth under the head of expenditures for public schools for Chinese natives there are included but the two items, "teachers' salaries" and "teachers' traveling expenses." These items are met from the local prefectural treasuries, while those for the maintenance, repair, and upkeep of the school are defrayed from the local tax assessments and properties belonging to the school.

Table 10.—School	statistics	for the	year	1906.
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	r of	   <b>T</b> €	ache	ers.		Pupils		Pupils ing	Graduates during the year.				
Kind of school.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
Public schools for Chinese natives Public schools for	180 681		57		1		<b>3</b> 1, 8 <b>2</b> 3	12,920			51 <b>9</b>	16	535
savages	15	40	• • • •	40	996	92	1,088	362	55	417	47	1	48
School a	l 1	18	1	14	324	134	458	175	74	249	16	4	20
Shirin Girls' School	ı	1	8	4		24	24		5	5		6	-6
Elementary schools for Japanese Higher Girls' School,	14	55	29	84	1,684	1,601	3, 285	1,074	1,051	2, 125	239	252	491
for Japanese Middle School, for	1	5	6	11		149	149		81	81	٠		<b> </b>
Japanese Language School: Normal depart-	1		<b> </b>		213		213	109	 	109	19		19
ment— Chinese na- tives Japanese Academic depart- ment—	1	41		41	197 20	: 	197 20	99 20		99 20	44 20		44 20
Chinese na-		`	ĺ		. 76	!	76	31		31	6		. 6
Miscellaneous	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •				10		/6	31		31	0		0
schools b	13	55	8	63	430	78	508	455	30	485	36	17	58
schools	914	916		916	19,584	331	19,915	15, 214	242	15, 456	i	<b></b>	
Total	1.141	1.807	104	1.911	51 394	6.370	57 764	30, 459	3.687	34 146	963	296	1.259

<sup>\*</sup>Banka School is in reality a public Chinese school, and the figures given above for this school may well be included in those for public schools for Chinese natives.

\*The item "miscellaneous schools" includes private schools for Japanese, a night school, a special law school (private), and missionary schools.

TABLE 11.—School statistics for the years 1900 to 1906, inclusive.

Year.	Num-	Teachers.			Pupils enrolled.		
	ber of chools.	Male.	Fe- male.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1900	1,624 1,712 1,800 1,550 1,270 1,259 1,140	1, 993 2, 203 2, 337 2, 195 1, 861 1, 892 1, 807	42 47 65 71 77 92 104	2,035 2,250 2,402 2,266 1,938 1,984 1,911	40,060 46,386 50,200 48,662 45,095 46,476 51,394	1,906 2,682 3,221 3,881 4,490 5,444 6,370	41, 916 49, 068 53, 421 52, 543 49, 585 51, 920 57, 764
Year.	Students entered during graduates during the year.						
	Boy	s.   G	irls.	Total.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
1900	9, 12, 10, 27, 25,	040   1 497   2 199   2 133   2 686   3	, 258 , 501 , 012 , 058 , 681 , 261 , 687	9, 786 10, 541 14, 509 12, 257 29, 814 28, 947 34, 146	208 112 451 302 638 737 963	45 38 69 87 237 230 296	253 150 520 389 875 967

The figures above include all classes of schools entered in Table 10, but do not include the Medical School, the Agricultural School, or the Industrial Sugar School. These are considered separately.

#### APPENDIX.

#### MISSIONARY SCHOOLS.

A report upon education in Formosa would be incomplete without a description of the splendid work done by the foreign missionary societies.

#### (a) THE SPANISH MISSION.

Considering the proximity of Formosa to the Philippine Islands, it is not strange that Spain should have sent her missionaries to the island as early as 1626. From 1626 to 1642 Dominican friars carried on missionary work among the Pepohuans, or peaceful savages of the plains, in the vicinity of Kelung. The field of their labors embraced the country lying within a radius of 20 miles from Kelung. Churches were established in ten different villages, and during the sixteen years which the mission operated in Formosa ten fathers and three brothers of the Dominican order had come to the island. A school was opened on Palm Island, in Kelung Harbor, about the year 1630, and enrolled at one time as many as 400 pupils. This school aimed to teach the savages to read and write their own language in romanized characters, with the object in view of preparing them for work in the church. The educational work of the mission was confined to this one institution.

During the year 1642 the Dutch drove the Spanish from the island, and it was not until the year 1710 that any of the Spanish missionaries returned. During that year Father Manilla visited North Formosa, and reported finding one of the descendants of the Pepohuans, who had come under the influence of the Spanish mission prior to the year 1642, who was able to read and write the romanized native language. It was not, however, until the year 1850 that the Spanish mission was reestablished in Formosa. By that time all vestiges of the labors of their early missionaries had been entirely obliterated. During the year 1850 two Dominican fathers settled at Takao, South Formosa, and opened there a church and school.

Up to the present churches have been established in 20 villages throughout the island. Twelve Dominican fathers are in charge of these churches. At Cheng King, in the vicinity of Takao, there was established, in 1894, a girls' school and orphanage, which was placed in charge of a nun who was sent from Manila for that purpose. Since then two more nuns have come from Manila to assist at this girls' school. Chinese girls of poor parents or without parents are cared for in this institution. They are trained as housewives and married to members of the church, or as teachers for the school. There are at present 50 girls in the school. About 10 miles south of Taichu there is a school for the training of young men for positions in the church. This institution has an enrollment of 28 students, and is under the charge of two fathers, assisted by two Chinese teachers. The course of study extends over five years. These two schools are the only educational institutions at present conducted by the Spanish mission.

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#### (b) THE ENGLISH PRESBYTERIAN MISSION.

As for Protestant missions, the English Presbyterian Mission considers South Formosa its field of labor, while the Canadian Presbyterian Mission cares for North Formosa. The English Presbyterian Mission was established in South Formosa during the year 1865. Its native chapels now number about 80. Up to the year 1883 all educational work in this mission was confined to training young men for the ministry. During that year Mr. George Ede came to Formosa to take charge of mission schools. After two years' training in the native Chinese dialect, he opened a school in Tainan, which was named the Tainan High School. In 1894 a special building was provided for the school. It accommodated 50 pupils. This school is at present under the direction of Mr. F. R. Johnson, assisted by three Chinese and one Japanese, who give half their time to the school. Instruction is given in Chinese, history, geography, arithmetic, and Japanese, the latter subject being taught in response to the Formosan government regulations pertaining to private schools under foreign management. English is taught to those only who pay a special fee in addition to the regular fee of \$10 a year. The school has at present an enrollment of 48 resident male students. It accepts graduates of elementary schools provided by the mission. These elementary schools, or "local congregational schools," aim to reach the children of the local congregations. There are at present 10 of these schools. The curriculum provides a six-year course embracing the following subjects: Chinese (reading of the classics), reading and writing of the romanized Chinese, arithmetic, geography, and the Scriptures, Each of these schools has one Chinese teacher, and there are between 300 and 400 children under instruction.

The mission also provides a girls' school, which was established in 1887. It accommodates 50 resident students. At present there are 49 living at the school. The English women connected with the mission have charge, assisted by native women teachers. The curriculum covers the following subjects: Chinese, reading and writing romanized Formosan Chinese, arithmetic, Japanese, history, geography, Scriptures, and domestic science. A Chinese and a Japanese teacher give a few hours a week to teaching in this school.

In addition to the girls' school there is a women's school, where Christian women can live for a year or two for the purpose of receiving instruction in reading the Scriptures. There are at present 10 women living in this institution.

The training of young men for the ministry has received the attention of the mission from the time of its establishment in the island. In 1880 the first building for that purpose was erected. It accommodated 13 students and 1 tutor. During the year 1903 the present building was opened. It accommodates 40 students, but the number in actual attendance averages about 25. This school is under the charge of the Rev. Thomas Barclay, who came to Formosa in 1874 to join the mission. Besides a Chinese tutor, one Chinese and one Japanese teacher give half of their time in teaching in this institution. The curriculum includes the Bible, theology, church history, etc., and arithmetic, Chinese, Japanese, and singing. The course extends over four years. For practical training the students preach each Sunday at stations in proximity to the school. They are allowed \$2.25 a month each to cover their expenses; married students are allowed a trifle more.

There are connected with the mission three hospitals, each of which is under the charge of a foreign physician. These hospitals accept a certain number of native young men for training. Classes are provided for theoretical instruction. Many of the graduates of these hospitals are doing splendid work as practicing physicians among the natives. Now that the Government

authorities permit only the graduates of the Government Medical School to become practitioners, there are fewer openings for the students trained in these hospitals.

For many years the mission has been publishing a monthly paper in romanized Formosan, which circulates among the native members of the church and undoubtedly exerts a beneficent educating influence.

#### (c) THE CANADIAN PRESBYTEBIAN MISSION.

The Canadian Presbyterian Mission established itself in Tamsui, North Formosa; in 1872. It has now, distributed throughout the northern half of the island, 60 chapels with medical dispensaries attached. It maintains, at Tamsui, a school known as Oxford College, where native young men are trained as clergymen. A course of study similar to that prescribed in the Tainan theological school obtains here. In addition to the theological college, the mission also conducts a girls' school and a hospital. It is at present preparing to extend the scope of its educational work by the erection of a building for school purposes in the vicinity of the capital city.

From an educational point of view, the missionary societies in Formosa have been responsible for teaching thousands to read and write their own language, besides affording to many a modern common school education. The British societies have, in addition to their educational work, given to the natives free medical attendance. Now that the Japanese are establishing modern schools and hospitals throughout the island, it would appear that the labors of the missionaries in educational work would be less pronounced in the future than in the past; but, as the public school is at present designed to reach only those who are in a position to pay for its privileges, there is still room for the mission school.

### INDEX.

Aborigines, of Formosa, education of, 21; schools for, 11, 57.

Academic department of language school, timetable, 43.

Administration of schools in Formosa, 32.

Agricultural school in Formosa, 41, 46.

Agriculture, taught in schools of Formosa, 36; in the industrial sugar school, 49.

Algebra taught in language school, 42; in middle school, 55, 56.

American consulate, Tamsui, Formosa, 7.

Arithmetic, taught in schools of Formosa, 36; in language school, 41; in middle school, 56; in the industrial sugar school, 49.

Arnold, Julean H., 1, 5, 7.

Banka Public School, Formosa, 42.

Bookkeeping taught in language school, 43.

Botany, taught in academic department of language school, 43; in middle school, 56.

guage scnool, 43; in middle scnool, 55.

Bulletins, published by Bureau of Education, 3.

Building and equipment of schools in Formosa, 33.

Bureau of Education, bulletins published, 3.

Canadian Presbyterian mission, 67.

Census returns, in Formosa, 31.

Chemistry, taught in middle school, 55; in the industrial sugar school, 49.

Chen Lao Wen, 21.

Children, enrolled in schools, 31; of school age, in Formosa, 31.

Chinese, the, summary of their educational work, 26.

Chinese, taught in schools of Formosa, 36; in language school, 41; in middle school, 55, 56.

Chinese natives, private schools for, 49; training of, 46.

Clergy, native, proposed college for, 13.

College, for training native clergy, 13.

Commerce, taught in schools of Formosa, 36; in language school, 42.

Comparison, between education under the Dutch, the Chinese, and the Japanese, 59.

Condition of Formosa, under the Dutch, 9; under the Chinese, 15; under the Japanese, 28.

Conquest, educational, of the Far East, 7.

Course of study, in schools of Formosa, 35; for elementary schools, 52.

District schools in Formosa, 17.

Dutch East India Company, 9.

Drawing, taught in language school, 41; in middle school, 56

Dutch, the, results of their labors in Formosa, 14. Education, among the tribes in Formosa, 23.

Education. in Formosa, under the Dutch, 9; under the Chinese, 15; under the Japanese, 28; of girls, in Formosa, 43; of the Chinese, (a) object. 16;

(b) system of control, 17; district schools, 17; savage, under governor Ming Chuan, 24; under the Dutch, Chinese, and Japanese compared, 59. Elementary schools, in Formosa, 31; for Japanese, 51.

English, taught in middle school, 55, 56.

English Presbyterian mission, 66.

Enrollment in schools of Formosa, 31.

Establishment, of district schools in Formosa, 17; of educational system, by the Japanese, 29.

Etiquette, taught in language school, 41.

Examinations, imperial Chinese, 18.

Expenditure, for education in Formosa, in 1906, 62; for schools for aborigines, 62; for schools for Chinese, 62; for schools for Japanese, 62; for the language school, 62.

Formosa, aborigines of, 11; education in, under the Dutch, 9; under the Chinese, 15; under the Japanese, 28; educational system, 7; inhabitants of, 9.

Geography, taught in language school, 41; in middle school, 55, 56; physical, taught in middle school, 55.

Geology, taught in middle school, 55.

Geometry, taught in language school, 42; in middle school, 55, 56.

Girls' higher school, 57.

Girls' language school, 43.

Graduates, in Formosan schools, in 1906, 63; from Chinese schools in Formosa, 40.

Grammar, Japanese, taught in middle school, 55, 56.

Gymnastics, in schools of Formosa, 36; in language school, 41; in middle school, 56.

Higher schools, for girls, 57.

History, taught in language school, 41; in middle school, 55, 56.

Industrial Sugar School, in Formosa, 41, 48.

Inhabitants of Formosa, 9.

Instruction, religious, in Formosa, 12.

Japan, status of education in, 28.

Japanese, taught in schools of Formosa, 36; in the industrial sugar school, 49; in language school, 41; in middle school, 55.

Japanese customs, adopted by native pupils, 40.

Japanese history, taught in language school, 43; in middle school, 55, 56.

Japanese Red Cross Hospital, in Formosa, 45. Koxinga and his successor, 15.

mosa, 27. ·

Language school, in Formosa, 41. Law, a study in academic department of language school, 43; taught in middle school, 56. Lewis, Robert E., 7. Letter of transmittal, 5. Liu Ming Chuan, Governor, 19. Location, of schools in Formosa, 24, 27, Maintenance of schools, 32. Management, of boiler and engine taught, 49; of sugar machinery taught, 49. Manual training, in schools of Formosa, 36; in language school, 42. Mathematics, taught in language school, 42; in middle school, 55, 56. Medical school, in Formosa, 41, 44. Metaphysics, taught in language school, 42. Methods of instruction, in Formosa, 11; taught in language school, 42. Middle school, for Japanese in Formosa, 53. Missionary schools, in Formosa, 65. Missionary work, Dutch, in Formosa, 11. Morals, taught in schools of Formosa, 36; in language school, 41; in middle school, 56. Music, taught in schools of Formosa, 36; in middle achool, 56. Natural history, taught in middle school, 55. 56: taught in language school, 41. Normal department, of middle school, 57. Patriotism, taught in middle school, 55. Pedagogy, taught in language school, 42. Physics, taught in the industrial sugar school, 49; taught in middle school, 55, 56. Physiology, taught in middle school, 55, 56. Political economy, in academic department of language school, 43: in middle school, 55, 56. Presbyterian mission, English, 66; Canadian, 67. Private schools, in Formosa, 19; for Chinese na-Public schools, established by the Chinese in For-

Pupils, in Formosa, statistics, 63; of elementary schools, 52; in public schools of Formosa, 38. Results, of the labors of the Dutch in Formosa, 14. Rules, for religious instruction, 12; for the training of native clergy, 13. School age, children of, 31. School management, taught in language school, 42. School statistics of Formosa for 1906, 63. Schools, for aborigines in Formosa, 57; for Japanese, in Formosa, 51; for natives, in Formosa, 31; for savages, established by the Chinese, 28. Schools in Formosa, in 1735, 22; language school, 41; medical school, 44; agricultural school, 46; industrial sugar school, 48; girls' school, 43. Secondary schools for Chinese in Formosa, 41; for Japanese, 53. Sewing, taught in schools of Formosa, 36. Singing, taught in middle school, 56. Spanish mission, in Formosa, 65. Sports, in language school, 41. Statistics, of the schools in Formosa in 1906, 63. Study schedule, for native Chinese, 36; for normal department of language schools, 41; of middle school, in Formosa, 55. Subjects, taught in agricultural school, in Formosa, 47. Sugar, analysis, cultivation, manufacture of, taught, 49. Summary of education under the Chinese, 26. Teachers of elementary schools, 33; Japanese, 34, 52; statistics, 63. Text-books, in the schools of Formosa, 35. Time-tables of schools in Formosa, 20, 36; of language schools. 41. Trigonometry, taught in middle school, 55, 56,

Tuition, free in schools for aborigines, 58.

Writing, taught in language school, 41.

Zoology, taught in academic department of language school, 43; in middle school, 56.

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